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BY

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AUTHOR OF THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS.

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

By HENRY KIDDLE, A.M.,

LATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

NEWLY REVISED AND ENLARGED.

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THE school-book now pretty well-known as "Brown's Institutes of English Grammar," was my first attempt at authorship in the character of a grammarian ; and, satisfactory as it has been to the many thousands who have used it, it has, nevertheless, like all other not incorrigible attempts in this line, been found susceptible of sundry important emendations. So that I must believe with Murray, that, "Works of this nature admit of *repeated improvements* ; and are, perhaps, never complete." It cannot, however, be said in my favor, as it has been in commendation of this author, that, "He went on examining and correcting his grammar *through all its forty editions*, till he brought it to the utmost degree of perfection ;" but something has been done in this way, three or four of the early editions of the Institutes having been severally retouched and improved by the author's hand ; and now, an undiminished demand for the work having continued to spread its reputation, I have at length the satisfaction to have endeavored yet once again to render it still more worthy of the public favor.

The time which has elapsed since the author first published this work, has been mainly spent in labors and studies tending very directly to enlarge and mature his knowledge of English Grammar ; and, especially, to better his acquaintance with the great variety of books and essays which have been written upon it. The principal result of these labors and studies has been given to the world in his large work entitled "The Grammar of English Grammars." To conform the future editions of these Institutes more nearly to the text of this large Grammar, to supply some deficiencies which have been thought to lessen the comparative value of the former work, to divide the book more systematically into chapters and subdivisions, and to correct a few typographical errors which had crept in, were the objects contemplated in the revision which has now been effected.

In making these improvements, I have not forgotten that alter-

ations in a popular class-book are, on some accounts, exceedingly undesirable. The writer who ventures at all upon them, is ever liable to subject his patrons and best friends to more or less inconvenience ; and for this he should be very sure of having presented, in every instance, an ample compensation. It is believed that the changes which the present revision exhibits, though they are neither few nor unimportant, need not prevent, in schools, a concurrent use of old editions with the new, till the former may be sufficiently worn out. What has been added or changed, will therefore lack no justification ; and the author will rest, with sufficient assurance, in the hope that the intelligent patronage which has hitherto been giving more and more publicity to his earliest teachings, will find decidedly, and without mistake, in this improved form of the work, the best common school Grammar now extant.

GOOLD BROWN.

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HISTORY OF LANGUAGE.

WE are told by those who have made the subject their study, that there are now more than a thousand languages spoken in the world. Some of these, such as the English, French, and German, are highly developed tongues, capable of expressing, fully and clearly, the most complex and refined ideas which cultivated minds can entertain ; while others are the simple and meagre tongues which suffice for the few and simple thoughts of rude and ignorant Savages.

Every one of these languages, from the highest to the lowest, has its grammar. Not, of course, necessarily a grammar that is written in books and taught in schools, but some rules for forming and arranging its words so that the thoughts of the speaker, and the relations between the things spoken of, may be accurately conveyed to the hearer. Without such rules no intelligible speech would be possible ; and the system of rules observed in every language by careful speakers or writers is the grammar of that language. A book which teaches the rules for the correct use of English, teaches English grammar, and such a book is usually called an English Grammar.

All languages are, of course, originally contrivances for conveying thoughts from one person to another by means of sounds. But at an early stage in the history of civilization it was found desirable to express thoughts to the eye, by visible symbols, and so written language arose. Of this there are three stages. The first and most natural method was to draw a picture of the object or objects, or some easily understood

symbol. This mode of writing is practised now by some tribes of American Indians, and in the developed form that we call *hieroglyphics*, was used by the ancient Egyptians. The second mode was by the use of conventional figures which are no representation of the thing, but are understood to stand for it. A system of this kind in ordinary use is our Arabic notation of numerals. The figure 4, for instance, is equally intelligible to an Englishman, a Frenchman, and a German, though the first calls it "four," the second "quatre," and the third "vier." These two modes, then, represent *things* and *conceptions*, and not *names* and *sounds*.

Most nations, however, have adopted a *phonetic* system of writing; that is, a system of indicating, by means of arbitrary characters, the *sounds* of speech; in other words, the names of things instead of the things themselves. This has the disadvantage that it can be read only by one who understands the language; but this is far more than counterbalanced by its simplicity. For as the simple sounds of speech are few, a very small set of symbols will be sufficient to represent them, and these can be combined as the sounds are combined. Such a set of symbols for simple sounds is called an alphabet. Twenty-six characters are all that the beginner in English has to learn; while the Chinese (who do not use a phonetic system) have to learn some thousands of characters before they can read a simple book.

It is exceedingly probable, though it cannot be positively asserted, that alphabetic writing descended from the hieroglyphic, by making the symbols, for convenience, more conventional and less like pictures. An instance of this occurs in our own language. In early times there was a special character, þ, representing the English *th*. This character was called "thorn;" and it can be seen to be a rude representation of a thorn on its stem. In the course of time this character came to be written p, in which the likeness to a thorn can hardly be traced.

In certain ways we still use the older modes of represen-

tation ; for instance, such a statement in an almanac as “ © sets at 9h. 34m.,” illustrates the hieroglyphic, the conventional, and the phonetic systems.

The four divisions of grammar—Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody—will be explained further on. In addition to these there is a study which deals with the sounds of speech and the laws that govern them, which is called *Phonetics*, and one which deals with the resemblances and differences of various languages, which is called *Comparative Grammar*. These all are parts of one comprehensive science of language, called *Philology*, which deals with all languages, ancient and modern.

If a person who could speak and read the principal European languages, but knew nothing of the researches of philologists, were to endeavor from the languages themselves to find out something about their origin and history, he would probably proceed somewhat in this way :

He would notice, first, that the languages spoken in the South of Europe, for instance, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, have a great similarity to each other. Taking the word “good,” he would find it in those languages, respectively, *bon*, *buono*, *bueno*, and *bom*. Now, remembering that many centuries ago the Latin language was universally spoken in those countries, he would naturally fix upon the Latin *bonus* as the origin of all these forms ; and when, upon further examination, he found that the same resemblance held good for by far the greater part of the words in these languages, his conclusion would be that these languages are derived from the Latin ; that is, that they are forms of Latin speech which have undergone changes in the course of time.

Now when he came to the languages of Northern Europe, and taking English, German, and Dutch as examples, found that the words corresponding to the Latin *bonus* were, respectively, *good*, *gut*, and *goed*, which are not the least like the Latin, though they are like each other, he would probably form two conclusions : first, that these languages are not

derived from the Latin, and, second, that they are derived from some entirely different common source.

But if he carried his investigations further in English, he would meet with facts that seem to make these last conclusions doubtful. He would meet with many thousands of words, such as *exclude*, *admirable* (Latin *excludere*, *admirabilis*), which come quite as near to the Latin as do the words of the Southern languages. But on comparison he would note an important difference. He would observe that while in the Southern languages the simplest and most familiar words, such as those which stand for "good," "bad," "man," "woman," are plainly of Latin origin, in the Northern languages this is not the case. And if he brought together the English words which are so like the Latin, he would observe that not only are they not the simple homely speech of daily life, but they are, for the most part, the words of books or of educated people. He would then probably modify his former conclusions in this way, that there are in English two great classes of words, one used by educated and uneducated alike, and therefore probably the original tongue of the people, and one class introduced from the Latin at a time when there were enough scholars and learned writers of books to make a permanent impression on the language.

Further investigation would lead to the discovery that there is another and considerable class of words in familiar use, such as *flower*, *beauty*, *loyal*, which are not so obviously Latin as *exclude*, *admirable*, and yet seem to be of Latin derivation. This would point to a threefold division: First, the primitive words, not of Latin origin, which seem (roughly speaking) all alike, and one as old as the other; second, a class of words which differ from the Latin only in the termination; third, words apparently of Latin origin, like *flower* (Lat. *florem*), *beauty* (Lat. *bellitatem*), *loyal* (Lat. *legalis*), which have undergone change in the body of the word. This fact would point to one of two conclusions, viz.: that this last group of words had either been introduced at an earlier period, so that they

had had more time in which to undergo change ; or else that they had not been taken directly from the Latin, but from some other language of Latin origin.

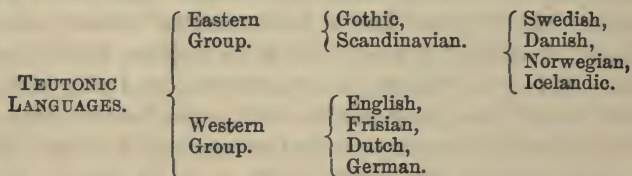
We will suppose that our investigator now, having seen from *flower* and *beauty* how much words may change, determines to compare a large number of the non-Latin, primitive English words with their equivalents in other languages, including the Latin and Greek, to see if there is not a resemblance, less obvious, but sufficient to indicate some ancient kinship. He will then find a large number of words like "father," "mother," "wine," which in German are *Vater*, *Mutter*, *Wein* ; in French *père*, *mère*, *vin* ; in Latin, *pater*, *mater*, *vinum* ; in Greek *patēr*, *mētēr*, *vinos* ; resemblances which are far too numerous to be the result of accident. If now he broadened his investigations so as to include the Sanskrit (or ancient language of India), the Persian, and the Keltic (or ancient languages of Ireland, Wales, and Brittany), and still found these resemblances among them all ; and further observed that the *differences* seemed not to be capricious, but in accordance with certain laws, his conclusion would probably be that all these languages were related, and possibly all sprang, at some extremely ancient time, or times, from some primitive mother-speech.

The conclusions which we have supposed our investigator to have arrived at by comparison of words and by ordinary processes of induction, have been reached by philologists after extensive and laborious study, and confirmed and amplified by researches and reasoning which cannot be explained here.

Suffice it here to say that nearly all the languages of Europe (and English, as coming from Europe, is a European language), as well as the Persian and Sanskrit, languages of Asia, and the ancient Greek and Latin, have been shown to belong to one great family, to which has been given the name Indo-European, or Aryan. That they are all descended from one primitive mother-speech seems probable, though we do not know what that speech was.

Of this great family there are a number of groups: the **ROMANCE**, a term denoting the languages derived originally from the Latin, such as French and Italian; the **KELTIC**, or ancient languages of Wales and Brittany; the **SCLAVONIC**, or languages of Russia and Poland; and the **TEUTONIC**, or languages of Germany, Holland, and England.

The Teutonic, or group to which English belongs, is again subdivided into the Eastern and Western sub-groups, as shown by the diagram—



We say, then, that the English is a branch of the Teutonic group of the Indo-European, or Aryan, family of languages.

The English, however, is not the language that has been spoken in England from the earliest times. Before the island was called England, it was inhabited by a people, or peoples, whose descendants subsist in the Highlands of Scotland, and the Welsh, who spoke a Keltic tongue, and were akin to the ancient inhabitants of Gaul. We know what their language was, because dialects of it are still spoken (though they are apparently dying out), and many books, dictionaries, and grammars still preserve the later forms of these dialects.

In the fifth century of the Christian era a series of invasions of Britain were made by Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians, peoples living on the northwestern coasts of Germany, who in many battles conquered the Keltic inhabitants, slaying many, and driving the remnant to the extreme west coast, or to the mountainous country of Scotland, where, as was said, in the Highlands, Wales, and Cornwall, their descendants survive to this day. Thus the ancient Keltic tongue was displaced by that of the invaders, which was one speech, although the speech of the Saxons, who settled more

to the south, differed somewhat from that of the Angles, who settled in the middle and north of the island. The Angles were the most numerous and most powerful of the invading peoples, and occupied the most extensive territory; and so the island came to be called England, or land of the Angles, and the speech English, or speech of the Angles.

This most ancient form of the language is now often called Anglo-Saxon, from the two chief peoples who introduced it into Britain. The name is perhaps unfortunate, as the people who used it never called it Anglo-Saxon, but always English; and perhaps the term Old-English, or First English, is better. However, Anglo-Saxon is a convenient term to denote the earliest form of the language; but the student should always remember that it is not a foreign language from which ours is derived, but simply English in its earliest form.

This Old-English, or First English, however, has so very different a look from the English of the present day, that one who saw it for the first time might easily suppose it altogether foreign. For this there are three reasons. First, a great many old words have been lost in the course of time and replaced by others; for instance, *wiga*, a warrior; *leoth*, a song. Secondly, a great many words that have remained were then spelled differently; thus, "father," "mother," "child," were *fæder*, *modor*, *cild*. Thirdly, it was an *inflected* language; that is, the cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and the persons, moods, tenses, and participles of verbs were uniformly distinguished by changes of form. Thus "the good man" was *se góða mann*; but "to the good man," was *tham góðan menn*.

This earliest form of English, though it adopted a few Kellic words from the conquered peoples, and a few Latin words left behind by the Romans, or brought in by the Church after the Angles and Saxons became Christians, was really a *pure* language; that is, it contained practically no words but those of its own branch, and so continued until the Norman Conquest, in the year 1066.

In this earliest English many books were written, some of which are still preserved. The earliest poetry seems to have been written in the north; but the invasions of the Danes in the ninth century, that laid all that country waste, nearly destroyed this northern literature. Afterwards, in the reign of King Alfred, when England was for a while at peace, that great king endeavored to revive literature, encouraging schools and learned men, and translating several important Latin books himself. Under the encouragement thus given to literature other books were written, and a considerable part of the old Anglian poetry was rewritten in the Southern or Saxon dialect, in which form we now have it. The impulse thus given did not die out, and books continued to be written in this First English for two hundred years or more.

The Norman conquerors brought over their own Norman language, which, however, was not their original tongue of Norway, but a Romance speech which they had adopted after their settlement in Normandy. This Norman French was, of course, the speech of the court of William and his early successors. Moreover, he gave the best lands to his Norman followers, and put Norman ecclesiastics into nearly all the churches, so that the tongue of the Normans was planted everywhere throughout England. Thus for a while there was a division of tongues, "the high men," as an old chronicler tells us, speaking French, and "the low men holding to their native English." And these low men held so tenaciously to their native speech that they did not lose it as the Normans had lost theirs; but as there was constant intercourse and frequent intermarriage between the two races, each learned something of the speech of the other. England thus became for a while a two-languaged land, in which all but the very rudest people had some knowledge of both French and English. So we find in the thirteenth century popular songs and other poems written in alternate lines of French and English, or with half of each line French and half English, showing that the people they were written for could speak both

languages ; and a poet in the next century describes “ ditchers and diggers ” as amusing themselves by singing French songs.

There being no standard for English speech after it ceased to be the language of the court and of scholars, and very little writing of books in that tongue in the twelfth century, the English literature of the thirteenth century (of which a good deal has come down to us) was a literature of *dialects*, each author writing in the speech of his own part of the country. Of these dialects the principal were the Northern, or, more distinctly, Anglian speech (from which the Lowland Scotch, such as that of Burns, is descended) ; the Southern, or more distinctly Saxon, and the Midland, which later became the classic English.

Notwithstanding the fact that both French and English were spoken all over the island for about a hundred years after the Conquest very few Norman words came into the English language. But in other ways the language was powerfully affected.

It began to drop the inflections, and level down the declensions of nouns and conjugations of verbs to a few simple forms.

It began to discard grammatical gender. In French, as in all the Latin tongues, the word for the *sun* is masculine, those for the *moon* and for a *woman* are both feminine. In Old English, as in all the Teutonic tongues, the word for the sun is feminine, that for the moon masculine, and that for a woman neuter. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the process of discarding this grammatical gender went on, until in the fourteenth the language had very nearly reached the condition of modern English, in which grammatical gender does not exist.

There was also a change in syntax. The French indicates the cases of nouns by the use of prepositions ; the Old English indicated them chiefly by inflections. In this transition period the use of prepositions to indicate case was largely increased, and the use of inflections greatly diminished, though not entirely abandoned. To some extent these twofold forms are still used in English : thus we can say “ the king’s crown,”

or "the crown of the king;" "give the book to him," or "give him the book;" the "him" of the last example being the regular Old-English dative.

In an entry in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," under the date of 1154, we have the words, "in mani of the castles." Had this been written in King Alfred's time, it would have run, "in manegum burgum," or, "in fela thara burga." Here, beside the new Norman word, "castles," we note that the adjective "mani" and article "the" are no longer declined, the same form standing for all cases, singular or plural; but instead of the inflected genitive, "thara burga," we have the prepositional genitive "of the castles." Beside these changes in form, great numbers of French words began to come into the language late in the thirteenth and in the fourteenth centuries, so that the language assumes a distinctly modern appearance.

Any one who has never read any English older than Shakespeare, who should attempt to read a book by King Alfred, would have, like a beginner in Greek or Latin, to keep a dictionary at his elbow; while if he takes up Chaucer (A.D. 1340-1400) he will require only a word to be explained here and there, and will feel all the time that he is reading English. This signifies that from Chaucer's time to ours, or for five hundred years, there has been no sudden or violent change in the language; but it has gone on by regular process of development, dropping words from time to time, taking up new ones, modifying gradually some of its phrases, etc., just as it is doing at the present day.

Now we can explain historically the phenomena from which our supposed investigator drew his conclusions. The familiar words of daily use, such as *mother*, *father*, *man*, *woman*, *ride*, *fall*, etc., are chiefly from the primitive Teutonic stock; the words much changed from the Latin, like *flower* and *beauty*, are from the early French introduced by the conquerors, or read in French books when few English books were written; and the evidently Latin words, such as *exclude*, *admirable*,

were taken directly from the Latin by scholars and writers of books. Words of this class have been coming in, sometimes in greater numbers, and sometimes in less, from the fourteenth century to our own day.

In the sixteenth century there was a great awakening of interest in the study of the Greek and Latin; and writers, partly because they needed them, and partly to show their scholarship, introduced multitudes of Latin words into English, of which many, though not all, were permanently adopted into the language. Another source of new words has been the coinage of terms (usually from the Latin or Greek) to represent the new discoveries and inventions of science and art, such as *carbon*, *electricity*, *telephone*. When these words belong to things that enter into our daily life they become part of our ordinary and familiar speech. The words derived from the Greek and Latin, taken all together, are more than twice as many as the pure English words, and in the present rapid development of science and art, they are multiplying with extraordinary rapidity. Fortunately but a small part of them enter into our ordinary speech. Another source of additions to our speech is found in the changing conditions of individual and social life, which demand new words, or new significations given to old words, such as a *strike* of workmen, a *lock-out*, to *lynch*, etc. We have also the power, though we use it sparingly, of coining new words of pure Teutonic elements, such as *gripsack*.

Other languages have contributed, though in a far less degree, to our general stock of words, or vocabulary. Thus (to name a few only), the Hebrew has given us *cherub*, *cinnamon*; the Arabic, *alkali*, *sofa*; the Persian, *awning*, *shawl*; the Chinese, *tea*; the Mexican, *chocolate*; some West Indian tongue, *hammock*, *tobacco*; the Keltic, *basket*, *brag*; the German, *plunder*, *swindle*; the Dutch, *boom*, *yacht*, and many other sea-terms.

Thus the language is in perpetual, but gradual, process of change, while still remaining the same language. The diffu-

sion of education and general reading of books help greatly to fix the language, both by keeping words and phrases before men's eyes and in their memories, and by preserving models of good writing and a general standard to which all conform. Shakespeare wrote three hundred years ago, and we read his works with ease ; but he often says things in a way in which we should not say them, and uses some words which we do not use ; while we have at command many thousands of words which Shakespeare never heard. Dryden, writing two hundred years ago, has hardly any words or phrases which we do not use ; and Burke, writing a hundred years ago, none at all.

The English language, then, is a composite language of two principal elements, the Teutonic and the Latin-Romance. And, very fortunately, while admitting so many words from the latter source, it has still preserved a large vocabulary of the ancient Teutonic words of the same meaning, so that we have a choice, as between *flower* and *blossom*, *beautiful* and *fair*, *comprehend* and *understand*, *integrity* and *uprightness*. Much of the effectiveness of good writing lies in the happy selection between these two families of words, according to the nature of the subject treated, and the effect the writer wishes to produce : so that the double vocabulary is an advantage which English possesses over most, if not all, other languages.

Another great advantage lies in the fact that English, with its double vocabulary, may claim kin to both the Teutonic and Romance groups of the Indo-European family, and occupies, as it were, a middle position between them. This fact, combined with the other facts that the English-speaking people are the great colonizers, and that English is now spoken over a greater part of the earth's surface, and by a greater number of persons than any other of the Aryan tongues, and that it is spreading with remarkable rapidity, make not altogether extravagant the prediction of an eminent German scholar, that English would in course of time become the great international language of the world.

USE OF LANGUAGE.

We can think of any object which we have seen—a *tree*, for example—so as to see it in the mind, like an image or picture. This mental image or picture is called an **idea** of the tree. The word *tree* enables us to express the idea, either in speaking or writing. Words serve to bring to the mind the ideas of things previously observed. Thus we may think of various things, and recall to our minds the ideas of them by such words as the following:—

A horse.

A white horse.

A soldier on horseback.

A lady riding a black horse.

A horse running away with a carriage.

In a similar manner may be brought to the mind the ideas of things heard, smelt, tasted, or felt. Thus:—

Thunder.—The thunder peals.

A rose.—The rose has a sweet smell.

An orange.—The orange has a sweet and acid taste.

Velvet.—Velvet is soft and smooth to the touch.

When we try to think of these things, we find that, although we can seem to hear, smell, taste, or feel them, we cannot do this so clearly as we can see in the mind a tree, a horse, or other object of sight. Hence we say, the ideas of things seen are clearer than those obtained through any of the other senses.

In thinking we combine ideas in various ways. Thus:—

The bird builds its nest in the tree.

Here we have several ideas combined in a single **thought**:—of the *bird*, of *building*, of a *nest*, of a *tree*; and these are related to each other in various ways:—the bird builds; the nest is built; the nest is in the tree. There are, thus, four ideas of things, and several ideas of their relations one to another.

We cannot think without constantly using many ideas ; and we cannot think clearly or communicate our thoughts to other persons without using **words** to represent those ideas. These words joined together in the right way make **language**.

Language is the expression of our thoughts in speaking or in writing.

There are two kinds of language : spoken language and written language.

OBS. 1.—LANGUAGE, in the primitive sense of the term, embraced only vocal expression, or human speech uttered by the mouth ; but, after letters were invented to represent articulate sounds, language became twofold, *spoken* and *written* ; so that the term *language* now signifies *any series of sounds or letters formed into words and employed for the expression of thought*.

OBS. 2.—Letters claim to be a part of language, not merely because they represent articulate sounds, or spoken words, but because they form words of themselves, and have the power to become intelligible signs of thought, even independently of sound. Literature being the counterpart of speech, and more plenteous in words, the person who cannot read and write is about as deficient in language as the well-instructed deaf mute : perhaps, more so ; for *copiousness*, even of speech, results from letters.

By **grammar** we learn how to use language correctly both in speaking and in writing.

English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts, namely, **Orthography**, **Etymology**, **Syntax**, and **Prosody**.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

I.—LETTERS.

A **letter** is an alphabetic mark, or character, commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An **elementary sound** of a word, is a simple or primary sound of the human voice, used in speaking.

The sound of a letter is commonly called its **power** : when any letter of a word is not sounded, it is said to be **silent** or **mute**.

The letters in the English alphabet are twenty-six ; the elementary sounds in the language are about thirty-six.

A knowledge of the letters consists in an acquaintance with their *names*, their *classes*, their *powers*, and their *forms*.

The letters are printed, written, or otherwise represented in a variety of forms. The following are the four chief modes of representation :—

1. **Roman** : A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

2. **Italic** : *A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.*

3. **Script:** *A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.*

4. **Old English:** *A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.*

Names of the Letters.

The **names** of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are *A, Bee, Cee, Dee, E, Eff, Gee, Aitch, I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Ex, Wy, Zee.*

OBS. 1.—The names of the letters, as expressed in the modern languages, are mostly framed *with reference* to their powers, or sounds. Yet is there in English no letter of which the name is always identical with its power; for *A, E, I, O, and U*, are the only letters which can name themselves, and all these have other sounds than those which their names express.

OBS. 2.—Those letters which name themselves, take for their names those sounds which they usually represent at the end of an accented syllable; thus the names, *A, E, I, O, U*, are uttered with the sounds given to the same letters in the first syllables of the other names, *Abel, Enoch, Isaac, Obed, Urim*; or in the first syllables of the common words, *paper, penal, pilot, potent, pupil*. The other letters, most of which can never be perfectly sounded alone, have names in which their powers are combined with other sounds more vocal; as, *Bee, Cee, Dee,—Ell, Em, En,—Jay, Kay, Kue*. But, in this respect, the terms *Aitch* and *Double-u* are irregular; because they have no obvious reference to the powers of the letters thus named.

OBS. 3.—Letters, like all other things, must be learned and spoken of by their *names*; yet, as the simple characters are better known and more easily exhibited than their written names, the former are often substituted for the latter, and are read as the words for which they are assumed.

OBS. 4.—The letters, once learned, may be used *unnamed*; and so are they always used, except in oral spelling, or when some of their own number are to be particularized.

Classes of the Letters.

The letters are divided into two general classes, **vowels** and **consonants**.

A **vowel** is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone ; as, *a, e, o*.

A **consonant** is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel ; as, *b, c, d*.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. All the other letters are consonants.

W or *y* is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable ; as in *wine, twine, whine* ; *ye, yet, youth* : in all other cases, these letters are vowels ; as in *newly, dewy, eye-brow* ; *Yssel, Ystadt, yttria*.

Classes of Consonants.

The consonants are divided into **semivowels** and **mutes**.

A **semivowel** is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without a vowel, so that at the end of a syllable its sound may be protracted ; as, *l, n, z*, in *al, an, az*.

A **mute** is a consonant which cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, and which at the end of a syllable suddenly stops the breath ; as, *k, p, t*, in *ak, ap, at*.

The semivowels are *f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, w, x, y, z*, and *c* and *g* soft : but *w* or *y* at the end of a syllable, is a vowel ; and the sound of *c, f, g, h, j, s*, or *x*, can be protracted only as an *aspirate*, or strong breath.

Four of the semivowels,—*l, m, n*, and *r*,—are termed *liquids*, on account of the fluency of their sounds ; and four others,—*v, w, y*, and *z*,—are likewise more vocal than the aspirates.

The mutes are eight ; *b, d, k, p, q, t*, and *c* and *g* hard : three of these,—*k, q*, and *c* hard—sound exactly alike : *b, d*, and *g* hard, stop the voice less suddenly than the rest.

OBS. 1.—The foregoing division of the letters is of very great antiquity, and, in respect to its principal features, sanctioned by almost universal authority. Aristotle, three hundred and thirty years before Christ, divided the Greek letters into *vowels*, *semivowels*, and *mutes*, and declared that no syllable could be formed without a vowel. Some modern writers, however, not well satisfied with this ancient distribution of the elements of learning, have contradicted the Stagirite, and divided both sounds and letters into new classes, with various new names. Dr. Rush, author of “the Philosophy of the Human Voice,” resolves the letters into “*tonics*, *subtonics*, and *atonic*,” and avers that “consonants alone may form syllables.” Other authors have used the terms *vocals*, *sub-vocals*, and *aspirates* in classifying the elementary sounds.

OBS. 2.—Certain consonants or consonantal sounds are often distinguished in pairs, by way of contrast with each other, the one being called *flat* and the other *sharp*: as, *b* and *p*; *d* and *t*; *g* hard and *k*; *j* and *ch*; *v* and *f*; *th* flat and *th* sharp; *z* and sharp *s*; *zh* and *sh*. These, with reference to each other, are sometimes termed *correlatives* or *cognates*.

Powers of the Letters.

The **powers** of the letters are properly those elementary sounds which their figures are used to represent; but letters formed into words are capable of communicating thought independently of sound.

The **vowel sounds** which form the basis of the English language, and which ought therefore to be perfectly familiar to every one who speaks it, are those which are heard at the beginning of the words, *ate*, *at*, *ah*, *all*, *eel*, *ell*, *isle*, *ill*, *old*, *on*, *ooze*, *use*, *us*, and that of *u* in *bull*.

In the formation of words or syllables, some of these fourteen primary sounds may be joined together, as in *ay*, *oil*, *out*, *owl*; and all of them may be preceded or followed by certain motions and positions of the lips and tongue, which will severally convert them into other terms in speech. Thus the same essential sounds may be changed into a new series of words by an *f*; as, *fate*, *fat*, *far*, *fall*, *feel*, *fell*, *file*, *fill*, *fold*, *fond*, *fool*, *fuse*, *fuss*, *full*. Again, into as many more with a *p*; as, *pate*, *pat*, *par*, *pall*, *peel*, *pell*, *pile*, *pill*, *pole*, *pond*, *pool*, *pule*, *purl*, *pull*.

The **simple consonant sounds** in English are twenty-two: they are marked by *b, d, f, g* hard, *h, k, l, m, n, ng, p, r, s, sh, t, th* sharp, *th* flat, *v, w, y, z*, and *zh*. But *zh* is written only to show the sound of other letters; as of *s* in *pleasure*, or *z* in *azure*.

All these sounds are heard distinctly in the following words: *buy, die, fie, guy, high, kie, lie, my, nigh, eying, pie, rye, sigh, shy, tie, thigh, thy, vie, we, ye, zebra, seizure*. Again: most of them may be repeated in the same word if not in the same syllable; as in *bibber, diddle, fifty, giggle, high-hung, cackle, lily, mimic, ninny, singing, pippin, mirror, hissest, flesh-brush, tittle, thinketh, thither, vivid, witwal, union, vision*.

OBS. 1.—The possible combinations and mutations of the twenty-six letters of our alphabet are many millions of millions. But those clusters which are unpronounceable, are useless. Of such as may be easily uttered, there are more than enough for all the purposes of useful writing, or the recording of speech.

Thus it is, that from principles so few and simple as about six or seven and thirty plain elementary sounds, represented by characters still fewer, we derive such a variety of oral and written signs, as may suffice to explain or record all the sentiments and transactions of all men in all ages.

OBS. 2.—Different vowel sounds are produced by opening the mouth differently, and placing the tongue in a peculiar manner for each; but the voice may vary in loudness, pitch, or time, and still utter the same vowel power.

OBS. 3.—Each of the vowel sounds may be variously expressed by letters. About half of them are sometimes words: the rest are seldom, if ever, used alone even to form syllables. But the reader may easily learn to utter them all, separately, according to the foregoing series. Let us note them as plainly as possible: *eigh, ä, ah, awe, eh, ë, eye, ĩ, oh, o, oo, yew, ŭ, û*. Thus the eight long sounds, *eigh, ah, awe, eh, eye, o, ooh, yew*, are, or may be words; but the six less vocal, called the short vowel sounds, as in *at, et, it, ot, ut, put*, are commonly heard only in connection with consonants; except the first, which is perhaps the most frequent sound of the vowel *A* or *a*—a sound sometimes given to the word *a*, perhaps most generally; as in the phrase, “twice *ä* day.”

OBS. 4.—With us, the consonants *J* and *X* represent, not simple, but complex sounds: hence they are never doubled. *J* is equivalent to *dzh*; and *X*, either to *ks* or to *gz*. The former ends no English word, and the latter begins none. To the initial *X* of foreign words, we always give the simple sound of *Z*; as in *Xerxes, xebec*,

OBS. 5.—The consonants C and Q have no sounds peculiar to themselves. Q has always the power of *k*, and is constantly followed by *u* and some vowel or two more in the same syllable; as in *quake*, *quest*, *quit*, *quoit*. C is hard, like *k*, before *a*, *o*, and *u*; and soft, like *s*, before *e*, *i*, and *y*: thus the syllables *ca*, *ce*, *ci*, *co*, *cu*, *cy*, are pronounced *ka*, *se*, *si*, *ko*, *ku*, *sy*. S before *c* preserves the former sound, but coalesces with the latter; hence the syllables, *sca*, *sce*, *sci*, *sco*, *scu*, *scy*, are sounded *ska*, *se*, *si*, *ske*, *sku*, *sy*. Ce and ci have sometimes the sound of *sh*; as in *ocean*, *social*. Ch commonly represents the sound of *tsh*; as in *church*.

OBS. 6.—G, as well as C, has different sounds before different vowels. G is always hard, or guttural, before *a*, *o*, and *u*; and generally soft, like *j*, before *e*, *i*, or *y*: thus the syllables, *ga*, *ge*, *gi*, *go*, *gu*, *gy*, are pronounced *ga*, *je*, *ji*, *go*, *gu*, *gy*.

Forms of the Letters.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes, the *Italic*; and occasionally, the **Old English**. In *writing*, we use the *Script*.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as **capitals** and **small letters**.

Small letters constitute the body of every work, and capitals are used for the sake of eminence and distinction.

Rules for the use of Capitals.

RULE I.—TITLES OF BOOKS.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the chief words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small: as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II.—FIRST WORDS.

The first word of every distinct sentence, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III.—NAMES OF DEITY.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, *God*, *Jehovah*, *the Almighty*, *the Supreme Being*.

RULE IV.—PROPER NAMES.

Titles of office or honor, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, *Chief Justice Hale*, *William*, *London*, *the Park*, *the Albion*, *the Spectator*, *the Thames*.

RULE V.—OBJECT PERSONIFIED.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as,

“Come, gentle *Spring*, ethereal mildness, come.”

RULE VI.—WORDS DERIVED.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places should begin with capitals; as, *Newtonian*, *Grecian*, *Roman*.

RULE VII.—I AND O.

The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals; as, “Out of the depths have *I* cried unto thee, *O* Lord.”

RULE VIII.—IN POETRY.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

“Our sons their fathers’ failing language see,
And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be.”—*Pope*.

RULE IX.—EXAMPLES, ETC.

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, “Remember this maxim: ‘Know thyself.’” “Virgil says, ‘Labor conquers all things.’”

RULE X.—CHIEF WORDS.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subjects of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

II.—SYLLABLES.

A **syllable** is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, *a*, *an*, *ant*.

In every word there are as many syllables as there are distinct sounds; as, *gram-ma-ri-an*.

A word of one syllable is called a **monosyllable**; a word of two syllables, a **dissyllable**; a word of three syllables, a **trisyllable**; and a word of four or more syllables, a **polysyllable**.

Diphthongs and Triphthongs.

A **diphthong** is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*.

A **proper diphthong** is a diphthong in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *voice*.

An **improper diphthong** is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *oa* in *loaf*.

A **triphthong** is three vowels joined in one syllable; as, *ear* in *bear*, *iew* in *view*.

A **proper triphthong** is a triphthong in which all the vowels are sounded; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

An **improper triphthong** is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, *ear* in *beauty*, *iou* in *anxious*.

Syllabication.

In dividing words into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear; it may however be proper to observe, as far as practicable, the following rules:—

RULE I.—CONSONANTS.

Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diphthongs which they modify in utterance; as, *ap-os-tol-i-cal*.

RULE II.—VOWELS.

Two vowels, coming together, if they make not a diphthong, must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, *a-e-ri-al*.

RULE III.—TERMINATIONS.

Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, *harm-less*, *great-ly*, *con-nect-ed*.

RULE IV.—PREFIXES.

Prefixes in general form separate syllables; as, *mis-place*, *out-ride*, *up-lift*: but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus *re-create* and *rec-reate* are words of different import,

RULE V.—COMPOUNDS.

Compounds, when divided, should be divided into the simple words which compose them ; as, *no-where*.

RULE VI.—FULL LINES.

At the end of a line, a word may be divided, if necessary ; but a syllable must never be broken.

III.—WORDS.

A **word** is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea, or of some manner of thought.

Species and Figure of Words.

Words are distinguished as **primitive** or **derivative**, and as **simple** or **compound**. The former division is called their **species** ; the latter, their **figure**.

A **primitive word** is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language ; as, *harm, great, connect*.

A **derivative word** is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language ; as, *harmless, greatly, connected, disconnect, unconnected*.

A **simple word** is one that is not compounded, not composed of other words ; as, *watch, man, never, the, less*.

A **compound word** is one that is composed of two or more simple words ; as, *watchman, nevertheless*.

Permanent compounds are consolidated ; as, *bookstore, housekeeper* : others, which may be called temporary compounds, are formed by the hyphen ; as, *glass-house, schoolmaster*.

Rules for the Figure of Words.

I.—Words regularly or analogically united, and commonly known as forming a compound, should never be needlessly broken apart.

II.—When the simple words would only form a regular phrase, of the same meaning, the compounding of any of them ought to be avoided.

III.—Words otherwise liable to be misunderstood, must be joined together or written separately, as the sense and construction may happen to require.

IV.—When two or more compounds are connected in one sentence, none of them should be split to make an ellipsis of half a word.

V.—When the parts of a compound do not fully coalesce; as, *to-day, to-night, to-morrow*; or when each retains its original accent, so that the compound has more than one, or one that is movable; as, *first-born, hanger-on, laughter-loving*, the hyphen should be inserted between them.

VI.—When a compound has but one accented syllable in pronunciation, as *watchword, statesman, gentleman*, and the parts are such as admit of a complete coalescence, no hyphen should be inserted between them.

IV.—SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

OBS.—This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But to be ignorant of the orthography of such words as are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The following rules may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to those who wish to be accurate.

Rules for Spelling.

RULE I.—FINAL F, L, OR S.

Monosyllables ending in *f, l, or s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff, mill, pass*: except three in *f—clef, if, of*; three in *l—bul, sal, sol*; and eleven in *s—as, gas, has, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus, pus*.

RULE II.—OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than *f, l, or s*, do not double the final letter: except *abb, ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, burr, purr, yarr, butt, buzz, fuzz*, and some proper names,

RULE III.—DOUBLING.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, or by a vowel after *qu*, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, *rob, robber; permit, permitting; acquit, acquittal, acquitting.*

Exc.—X final, being equivalent to *ks*, is never doubled.

RULE IV.—NO DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, *toil, toiling; visit, visited; general, generalize.*

Exc.—But *l* and *s* final are sometimes doubled (though according to Webster, improperly), when the last syllable is not accented; as, *travel, traveller; bias, biassed.*

RULE V.—RETAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double before any additional termination, not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives: *seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.*

Exc.—The irregular words, *fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past*, and the derivatives from the word *pontiff*, are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI.—FINAL E.

The final *e* mute of a primitive word, is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, *rate, ratable; force, forcible; rave, raving; eye, eying.*

Exc.—Words ending in *ce* or *ge*, retain the *e* before *able* or *ous*, to preserve the soft sounds of *c* and *g*; as, *peace, peaceable; change, changeable; outrage, outrageous.*

RULE VII.—FINAL E.

The final *e* of a primitive word, is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant; as, *pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.*

Exc.—When the *e* is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted: as, *true, truly; awe, awful*: and sometimes retained; as, *rue, rueful; shoe, shoeless.*

RULE VIII.—FINAL Y.

The final *y* of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* before an additional termination: as, *merry*, *merrier*, *merriest*, *merrily*, *merriment*; *pity*, *pitied*, *pitied*, *pitied*, *pitied*, *pitiless*, *pitiful*, *pitiable*.

Exc.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of *i*; as, *pity*, *pitying*. Words ending in *ie*, dropping the *e* by Rule 6th, change *i* into *y*, for the same reason; as, *die*, *dying*.

Obs.—When a vowel precedes, *y* should not be changed; as, *day*, *days*; *valley*, *valleys*; *money*, *moneys*; *monkey*, *monkeys*.

RULE IX.—COMPOUNDS.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them; as, *hereof*, *wherein*, *horseman*, *recall*, *uphill*, *shellfish*.

Exc.—In permanent compounds, the words *full* and *all* drop one *l*; as, *handful*, *careful*, *always*, *withal*: in others, they retain both; as, *full-eyed*, *all-wise*, *save-all*.

Questions for Review.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

What is an Idea?
 What is a Thought?
 What is Language?
 What is the use of Grammar?
 What is English Grammar?
 How is it divided?
 Of what does Orthography treat?
 Of what does Etymology treat?
 Of what does Syntax treat?
 Of what does Prosody treat?

II.—LETTERS.

Of what does Orthography treat?
 What is a *Letter*?
 What is an elementary sound of a word?
 What name is given to the sound of a letter?—What epithet, to a letter not sounded?
 How many letters are there in English?—How many sounds do they represent?
 In what does a knowledge of the letters consist?
 What variety is noticed in letters that are always the same?
 What different sorts of types, or letters, are used in English?

What are the names of the letters in English ?
 Which of the letters name themselves, and which do not ?
 What are the names of all in both numbers, singular and plural ?

III.—CLASSES OF LETTERS.

Into what general classes are the letters divided ?
 What is a vowel ?
 What is a consonant ?
 What letters are vowels ?—What, consonants ?
 When are *w* and *y* consonants, and when vowels ?
 How are the consonants divided ?
 What is a semivowel ?
 What is a mute ?
 What letters are semivowels, and which of these are aspirates ?
 What letters are called liquids, and why ?
 How many and which are the letters reckoned mutes ?

IV.—POWERS, OR SOUNDS.

What is meant, when we speak of “the *powers* of the letters ?”
 In what series of short words are heard our chief vowel sounds ?
 How may these sounds be modified to form words or syllables ?
 Can you form a word from each by means of an *f* ?
 Will you form another such series with a *p* ?
 How many and what are the consonant sounds in English ?
 In what series of words may all these sounds be heard ?
 In what series of words is each of them heard more than once ?
 Do our letters admit of combinations enough ?
 What do we derive from these elements of language ?

V.—FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

What is said of the employment of the several styles of letters in English ?
 What distinction of form do we make in each of the letters ?
 What is said of small letters, and why are capitals used ?
 How many rules for capitals are given, and what are their heads ?
 What says Rule 1st of *titles of books* ?—Rule 2d, of *first words* ?—Rule 3d, of *names of Deity* ?—Rule 4th, of *proper names* ?—Rule 5th, of *objects personified* ?—Rule 6th, of *words derived* ?—Rule 7th, of *I and O* ?—Rule 8th, of *poetry* ?—Rule 9th, of *examples, etc.* ?—Rule 10th, of *chief words* ?

VI.—SYLLABLES.

What is a syllable ?
 Can the syllables of a word be perceived by the ear ?
 What is a word of one syllable called ?—a word of two syllables ?—of three ?
 —of four or more ?
 What is a diphthong ?
 What is a proper diphthong ?—an improper diphthong ?
 What is a triphthong ?

What is a proper triphthong?—An improper triphthong?

What chiefly directs us in dividing words into syllables?

How many rules of syllabication are given, and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st, of *consonants*?—Rule 2d, of *vowels*?—Rule 3d, of *terminations*?—Rule 4th, of *prefixes*?—Rule 5th, of *compounds*?—Rule 6th, of *lines full*?

VII.—WORDS.

What is a word?

How are words distinguished in regard to species and figure.

What is a primitive word?

What is a derivative word?

What is a simple word?

What is a compound word?

How do permanent compounds differ from others?

How many are the rules for the figure of words, and what are their heads?

What says rule 1st, of *compounds*?—Rule 2d, of *simples*?—Rule 3d, of *the sense*?—Rule 4th, of *ellipses*?—Rule 5th, of *the hyphen*?—Rule 6th, of using *no hyphen*?

VIII.—SPELLING.

What is *spelling*?

How is this art to be acquired?

How many rules for spelling are there, and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *final f, l, or s*?—Rule 2d, of *other finals*;—Rule 3d, of the *doubling* of consonants?—Rule 4th, *against the doubling* of consonants?—Rule 5th, of *retaining*?—Rule 6th, of *final e*?—Rule 7th, of *final e*?—Rule 8th, of *final y*?—Rule 9th, of *compounds*?

Exercises for Writing.

I.—CAPITALS.

These exercises are classified according to rules on pages 24, 25.

1. The pedant quoted Johnson's dictionary of the english language, Gregory's dictionary of arts and sciences, Crabb's english synonymes, Walker's key to the pronunciation of proper names, Sheridan's rhetorical grammar, and the diversions of purley.

2. gratitude is a delightful emotion. the grateful heart at once performs its duty and endears itself to others.

3. What madness and folly, to deny the great first cause! Shall mortal man presume against his maker? shall he not fear the omnipotent? shall he not reverence the everlasting one?—'The fear of the lord is the beginning of wisdom.'

4. xerxes the great, emperor of persia, united the medes, persians, bactrians, lydians, assyrians, hyrcanians, and many other nations, in an expedition against greece.

5. I observed that, when the votaries of religion were led aside, she commonly recalled them by her emissary conscience, before habit had time to enchain them.

6. Hercules is said to have killed the nemean lion, the erymanthian boar, the lernean serpent, and the stymphalian birds. The christian religion has brought all mythologic stories and milesian fables into disrepute.

7. i live as i did, i think as i did, i love you as i did; but all these are to no purpose; the world will not live, think, or love as i do.—o wretched prince! o cruel reverse of fortune! o father Micipsa!

8. are these thy views? proceed, illustrious youth,
and virtue guard thee to the throne of truth!

9. Those who pretend to love peace, should remember this maxim: "it is the second blow that makes the battle."

II.—CAPITALS. MISCELLANEOUS.

'time and i will challenge any other two,' said philip.—'thus,' said diogenes, 'do I trample on the pride of plato.'—'true,' replied plato; 'but is it not with the greater pride of diogenes?'

the father in a transport of joy, burst into the following words: 'o excellent scipio! heaven has given thee more than human virtue! o glorious leader! o wondrous youth!'

epaminondas, the theban general, was remarkable for his love of truth. he never told a lie, even in jest.

and pharaoh said to Joseph, "say to thy brethren, 'do this—lade your beasts, and go to the land of canaan.'"

who is she that, with graceful steps and a lively air, trips over yonder plain? her name is health: she is the daughter of exercise and temperance.

to the penitent sinner, a mediator and intercessor with the sovereign of the universe, appear comfortable names.

the murder of abel, the curse and rejection of cain, and the birth and adoption of seth, are almost the only events related of the immediate family of adam, after his fall.

on what foundation stands the warrior's pride,
how just his hopes, let swedish charles decide.

in every leaf that trembles to the breeze,
i hear the voice of god among the trees.

III.—SYLLABLES.

Divide the following words into their proper syllables :—

Ado, adorn, adown, adrift, anoint, athwart, awry, bespeak, bestow, between, encroach, incrust, foreknow, forestall, forswear, underanged, preterit, retrace, uncoiled, unrepaid, unresting, underbid, upholder, withal.

Civil, color, copy, damask, dozen, ever, feather, gather, heaven, lemon, meadow, never, orange, punish, robin, shovel, timid, whither, benefit, canister, generous, academical, several, miserable, tolerable, epidemic, paralytic, liberal, characteristic, experimental.

Folio, genial, genius, glossy, junior, mover, satiate, seizure, vitiate, ambrosia, convenient, ingenious, omniscience, peculiar, substantiate, sociable, partiality, pecuniary, annunciate, enunciate, appreciate, associate, expatiate, negotiate.

Eastern, pallet, stormy, England, anthill, cowslip, farewell, foretop, hogshead, homeward, sandstone, forever, husbandman, painstaker, bookseller, acquittal, requisition, architecture, machinery, aqueduct, arable, horrible, inflammation, impossible, preferable, perilous, business, preferred.

IV.—FIGURE OF WORDS.

Correct the errors in the following, according to the rules on pages 27, 28.

1. The shine of the plough share is the farmer's wealth.
The cross row has ever had some thing of a magic spell in it.
The old fashioned are apt to think the world grows worse.
The stealing of water melons may lead to house breaking.
A good clothes brush helps greatly to make a gentle man.
2. An ill-tongue is a fearful corrupter of good-manners.
Envy not the good-luck of prosperous transgressors.
St. Paul admonishes Timothy to refuse old-wives'-fables.
Lawmakers have often been partial to male-descendants.
New-year's-gifts brighten many a face on new-year's day.
3. They that live in glass-houses should not throw stones.
A glass house is a house in which glass is manufactured.
A spirit stirring discourse is seldom a long winded one.
Knowledge and virtue are the stepping stones to honor.
The American whip poor Will is a night warbling bird.
4. Let school and meeting-houses be pleasantly located.
The teapot and kettle are now deemed indispensable.
Both the ten and the eight syllable verses are iambs.
Most, at six or seventeen years of age, are men and women.
A ketch is a vessel with two masts, a main and mizzen-mast.

5. The bloodyminded man seldom dwells long in safety.
A tiresmith puts on wheelbands redhot, then cools them.
Plato was so called because he was broadshouldered.
Timehonored custom may be souldestroying folly.
Is evenhanded honesty expected in slavemERCHANTS?
6. A good pay-master is always a man of some fore-thought.
The glory of the common-wealth is the states-man's boast.
Rain-bows are made of sun-shine dissolved in sky water.

V.—SPELLING.

In the following exercises the pupil is required to correct the errors in spelling according to the rules on pages, 28, 29, 30.

I.

1. Few know the value of a friend, til they lose him.
Good men pas by offences, and take no revenge.
Hear patiently, iff thou wouldst speak wel.
2. The business of warr is devastation and destruction.
To er is human; to forgive, divine.
A bad speller should not pretend to scholarshipp.
3. It often requires deep diging, to obtain pure water.
Praise is most shuned by the praiseworthy.
He that hoists too much sail, runs a risk of overseting.
4. Quarrels are more easily begun than endded.
Contempt leaves a deepper scar than anger.
Of all tame animals the flatterrer is the most mischievous.
5. Smalness with talness makes the figure too slender.
Heedlessness is always in danger of embarrasment.
The recklessness of license is no attribute of fredom.
6. Good examples are very convinceing teachers.
Doubts should not excite contention, but inquirey.
Obligeing conduct procures deserved esteem.
7. Wise men measure time by their improvment of it.
Learn to estimate all things by their real usfulness.
Encouragment increases with success.
8. Nothing essential to happyness is unattainable.
Vices, though near relations, are all at varyance.
Before thou denyest a favor, consider the request.
9. Good-wil is a more powerful motive than constraint.
A wel-spent day prepares us for sweet repose.
The path of fame is altogether an uphil road.

II.

1. He is tal enough who walks uprightly.
 Repetition makes smal transgressions great.
 Religion regulates the wil and affections.
2. To carry a ful cupp even, requires a steady hand.
 Idleness is the nest in which mischief lays its egs.
 The whole journey of life is besett with foes.
3. Peace of mind should be prefered to bodily safety.
 A bad begining is unfavorable to success.
 Very fruitful trees often need to be proped.
4. None ever gained esteem by tattling and gossipping.
 Religion purifies, fortifies, and tranquillizes the mind.
 They had all been closetted together a long time.
5. Blesed is he whose transgresion is forgiven.
 Indolence and listlesness are foes to happiness.
 Carelesness has occasioned many a wearisome step.
6. In all thy undertakeings, ponder the motive and the end.
 We cannot wrong others without injuring ourselves.
 A dureable good cannot spring from an external cause.
7. Duely appreciate and improve your privileges.
 To borrow of future time, is thriftless managment.
 He who is truely a freman is above mean compliances.
8. Pitiing friends cannot save us in a diing hour.
 Wisdom rescues the decaies of age from aversion.
 Vallies are generally more fertile than hills.
9. Cold numness had quite bereft her of sense.
 A cascade, or waterfal, is a charming object in scenery.
 Nettles grow in the vinyard of the slothfull.
 Tuition is lost on idlers and numbsculs.

III.

1. He that scofs at the crooked, should beware of stooping.
 Pictures that resemble flowers, smel only of paint.
 Misdemeanors are the pioneers of gros vices.
2. To remitt a wrong, leaves the offender in debt.
 Superlative commendation is near akinn to detraction.
 Piety admitts not of excessive sorrow.
3. You are safe in forgetting benefits you have confered.
 He has run well who has outstriped his own errors.
 See that you have ballast proportionate to your riging.
4. The biasses of prejudice often preclude convincement.
 Rather follow the wise than lead the foollish.

- To reason with the angry, is like whispering to the deaf
 A bigotted judge needs no time for deliberation.
 The gods of this world have many worshippers.
5. Crosness has more subjects than admirers.
 Fearlessness conquers where blamelessness is armor-bearer.
6. Many things are chiefly valued for their rarity.
 Vicious old age is hopeless and deploreable.
 Irreconcilable animosity is always blameable.
7. Treachery lurks beneath a guilful tongue.
 Disobedience and mischief deserve chastisement.
 By self-examination, we discover the lodgements of sin.
 The passions often mislead the judgement.
8. To be happy without holyness is impossible.
 And, all within, were walks and allies wide.
 Call imperfection what thou fancy'st such.
 Without fire, chimnies are useless.
9. The true philanthropist deserves a universal pasport.
 Ridicule is generally but the froth of il-nature.
 All mispent time will one day be regretted.

IV.—MISCELLANEOUS.

Fiction may soften, without improveing the heart.
 Affectation is a sprout that should be niped in the bud.
 A covettous person is always in want.
 Fashion is compareable to an ignis-fatuus.
 Fair appearances somtimes cover foul purposes.
 Garnish not your commendations with flatterry.
 Never utter a falshood even for truth's sake.
 Medicines should be administerred with caution.
 We have here no continueing city, no abideing rest.
 Many a trapp is laid to ensnare the feet of youth.
 We are caught as sillyly as the bird in the net.
 By defering repentance, we accumulate sorrows.
 To preach to the droneish, is to waste your words.
 We are often benefitted by what we have dreaded.
 We may be succesful, and yet disappointed.
 In rebusses, pictures are used to represent words.
 He is in great danger who parlies with conscience.
 Your men of forhead are magnificent in promises.
 A true friend is a most valueable acquisition.
 It is not a bad memory that forgets injuries.
 Weigh your subject wel, before you speak positivly.
 Difficulties are often increased by mismanagment.

Diseases are more easily prevented than cured.
 Contrivers of mischief often entrapp themselves.
 Corrupt speech indicates a distempered mind.
 Asseveration does not allways remove doubt.
 Hypocrites are like wolves in sheeps' clotheing.
 Ostentatious liberallity is its own paymaster.

V.—MISCELLANEOUS.

A downhil road may be travelled with ease.
 Distempered fancy can swel a molehil to a mountain.
 Let your own unbiassed judgment determine.
 A knave can often undersel his honest neighbors.
 Xenophanes prefered reputation to wealth.
 True politeness is the ofspring of benevolence.
 Levellers are generally the dupes of designning men.
 Rewards are for those who have fullfild their duty.
 Who trusts a hungry boy in a cubburd of dainties ?
 Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellers.
 The liberal man ties his purse with a beau-not.
 Double-deelers are seldom long in favor.
 The characters of the crosrow have wrought wonders.
 The plagiary is a jacedaw decked with stolen plumes.
 All virtues are in agrement ; all vices, at varyance.
 Personnal liberty is every man's natural birthrite.
 There, wrapt in clouds, the blueish hills ascend.
 The birds frame to thy song their chearfull cherupping.
 There figgs, skydyed, a purple hue disclose.
 Lysander goes twice a day to the choccolat-house.
 Years following years steal sumthing every day.
 The soul of the slothfull does but drowse in his body.
 What think you of a clergiman in a soldier's dres ?
 Justice is here holding the stilliards for a balance.
 The huming-bird is somtimes no bigger than a bumble-be.
 The muskittoes will make you as spotted as a samon-trout
 Cruelty to animals is a malicious and lo-lived vice.
 Absolute Necessity must sign their deth-warrant.
 He who catches flies, emulates the nat-snaper.
 The froggs had long lived unmolested in a horspond.
 "These are villanous creatures," says a blokhed boy.
 The robbin-read-breast til of late had rest,
 And children sacred held a martin's nest.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

I.—THE SENTENCE.

In the utterance of any definite thought, such as, *Birds fly—The sun shines—Fishes swim*, there is obviously some person or thing spoken of, and something said of that person or thing. The former is called the **subject**, and the latter the **predicate**. When united so as to make complete sense, these form what is called a **proposition**; and a proposition, or a combination of two or more propositions, forms a **sentence**.

Thus *Man is mortal* is a sentence containing one proposition; and *Art is long, and time is fleeting* is a sentence containing two propositions.

The distinction between the subject and the predicate of a sentence should be clearly understood. This distinction is marked in the following sentences:—

Subjects.

Birds
The flowers
Perseverance
The love of truth
An honest man

Predicates.

sing.
are fading.
overcomes all obstacles.
will prevail over error.
is the noblest work of God.

The following definitions will now be understood.

A **sentence** is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, “Reward sweetens labor.”—“The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.”

Every sentence must contain two principal parts ; namely, the **subject** and the **predicate**.

Whatever is directly spoken of in the sentence is the **subject** ; as, "The *sun* has set."—"Can *you* write?"

That which is said of the subject is the **predicate** ; as, "Beauty *fades*."

Any combination of the subject and predicate is called a **proposition**.

Words added to other words in a sentence to modify or limit their meaning are called **adjuncts** ; as, "*A good scholar rapidly* improves."

Sentences are divided, with respect to the nature of the propositions which they contain, into four classes ; **declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory**.

A sentence is *declarative*, when it expresses an affirmation or negation ; *interrogative*, when it expresses a question ; *imperative*, when it expresses a command ; and *exclamatory*, when it expresses an exclamation.

Exercises.

1. *Point out the subject and the predicate in the following sentences, and state to which of the four classes each sentence belongs.*

OBS.—In interrogative and exclamatory sentences, the words are usually transposed ; in imperative sentences, the subject is often understood ; as, "Bring me a slate ;" in which the subject is *thou* or *you*, understood.

The tree bears fruit. The ox bears a yoke. The carpenter uses a saw. Avarice causes crime. The miser loves gold. The boy has told an untruth. The merchant has made a fortune. The river overflowed its banks. Lend Charles a book. Has Mary received the letter ? Will Richard return soon ? How hard a task he has ! The scholar's diligence deserves a reward. Do not injure your neighbor. How kindly he treated his schoolmate ! Has Robert found his pencil ?

2. *Write predicates for the following subjects.*

Flowers. Oranges. Industry. Honesty. An industrious boy. A dishonest clerk. An amiable disposition. A good character. George Washington. Napoleon Bonaparte. Queen Victoria.

3. Write subjects for the following predicates.

—— is writing. —— was too late. —— did not improve.
 —— will be rewarded. —— should be treated with kindness.
 —— brings misery. —— is a source of happiness.

4. Insert as many adjuncts as possible to the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences.

Example.

The horses ran.

The *wild* horses ran *away very swiftly*.

The ship sailed. Flowers bloom. Flowers fade. Birds fly. The sun shines. The scholar improves. The oxen are grazing. The man is ploughing. The dog is barking. The woman is washing. The storm rages. The wind blows. The lightning flashes. The thunder peals.

II.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The words that compose a sentence are used for various purposes in connection with the subject or predicate. Some are *names* of persons or things ; some express *action* ; some, *quality* ; others, *relation* ; and some are used *to connect* words or propositions.

For this reason the words or parts of a sentence have been arranged in classes, called the **Parts of Speech**.

The Parts of Speech, or sorts of words, in English, are ten ; namely, the **article**, the **noun**, the **adjective**, the **pronoun**, the **verb**, the **participle**, the **adverb**, the **conjunction**, the **preposition**, and the **interjection**.

An **article** is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification ; as, *The* air, *the* stars ; *an* island, *a* ship.

A **noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned ; as, *George*, *York*, *man*, *apple*, *truth*.

An **adjective** is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality ; as, A *wise* man ; a *new* book. You *two* are *diligent*.

A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun: as, "The boy loves *his* book; *he* has long lessons, and *he* learns *them* well."

A **verb** is a word that signifies *to be*, *to act*, or *to be acted upon*: as, I *am*, I *rule*, I *am ruled*; I *love*, thou *lovest*, he *loves*.

A **participle** is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun.

It is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule*, are formed three participles: two simple and one compound; as, 1, *ruling*; 2, *ruled*; 3, *having ruled*.

An **adverb** is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner; as, "They are *now here*, studying *very diligently*."

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected; as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good."

A **preposition** is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun; as, "The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk."

An **interjection** is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; as, *Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw! avaunt!*

Definitions of Terms.

A **definition** of anything or class of things is such a description of it, as distinguishes that entire thing or class from every thing else, by briefly telling *what it is*.

A **rule of grammar** is some law, more or less general, by which custom regulates and prescribes the right use of language.

A **praxis** is a method of exercise, showing the learner how to proceed. (The word literally signifies action, doing, practice, or formal use.)

An **example** is a particular instance or model, serving to prove or illustrate some given proposition or truth.

An **exercise** is some technical performance required of the learner, in order to test his knowledge or skill by use.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence, or of some related word or words, according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

Exercises in Parsing.

Praxis I.—Etymological.

In the First Praxis, it is required of the pupil, after analyzing the sentence, by pointing out the subject and predicate, with the adjuncts in each, to distinguish the different parts of speech, and to assign a reason for such distinction, by citing the proper definition, and adapting it to each particular case. Thus :—

EXAMPLE PARSED.

“The patient ox submits to the yoke, and meekly performs the labor required of him.”

1. *Submits* is a verb, because it signifies action ;
Performs is also a verb, for the same reason.
2. *Ox* is a noun, because it is the name of a thing ;
Yoke and *labor* are nouns, for the same reason.
3. *The* is an article, because it limits the signification of *ox*, *yoke*, or *labor*—the noun before which it is placed.
4. *Patient* is an adjective, because it expresses the quality of the *ox*.
5. *Him* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun *ox*.
6. *Required* is a participle, because it expresses action like a verb, and qualifies the noun *labor* like an adjective.
7. *Meekly* is an adverb, because it is added to the verb *performs*, and expresses manner.
8. *And* is a conjunction, because it connects the predicates containing the verbs *submits* and *performs*.
9. *To* is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb *submits* to the noun *yoke*.

Note.—The numbers are here used to indicate the order in which the pupil should, at first, be required to distinguish the parts of speech in the sentences given in this exercise. The verb is made the first in this series, because it is the word to which all others have an immediate or remote relation, and because it is easily recognized, and, when discovered, leads the mind necessarily to a knowledge of the other parts of speech com-

prehended in the sentence, by showing the particular office of every word. This cannot be done, at this stage of the pupil's progress, with a proper degree of intelligence and precision, by mechanically examining each word in succession; for the reason that to do so requires him to compare the distinctive office of *each part of speech* with the word examined; while in these preliminary exercises, he is only required to keep in mind the character of a *single* part of speech, and compare it with *each word* of the sentence in succession. Besides, an *eclectic* process like that indicated, is better calculated to keep the interest and attention of the pupil awake, the constant desire of *discovery* continually stimulating mental activity.

Evil communications corrupt good manners.

Good books always deserve a careful perusal.

Passionate men are very easily irritated.

Perseverance finally overcomes all obstacles.

Human happiness is exceedingly transient.

The industrious boys have recited their lessons well.

A landscape presents a pleasing variety of objects.

The eagle has a strong and piercing eye.

The rose, the lily, and the pink are fragrant flowers.

Sloth enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers.

Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood.

In the spring the trees resume their verdure.

Industry is needful in every condition of life; the price of all improvement is labor.

III.—ARTICLES.

An **article** is the word *the*, *an*, or *a*, which we put before nouns to limit their signification.

An and *a* are one and the same article. *An* is used whenever the following word begins with a *vowel sound*; as, *An* art, *an* end, *an* heir, *an* inch, *an* ounce, *an* hour, *an* urn.—*A* is used whenever the following word begins with a *consonant sound*; as, *A* man, *a* house, *a* wonder, *a* one, *a* yew, *a* use, *a* ewer. Thus the consonant sounds of *w* and *y*, even when expressed by other letters, require *a* and not *an* before them.

Classes.

The articles are distinguished as the **definite** and the **indefinite**.

The **definite article** is *the*, which denotes some particular thing or things; as, *The* boy, *the* oranges.

The **indefinite article** is *an* or *a*, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, *A* boy, *an* orange.

Exercises for Writing.

1. *Prefix the definite article to the following nouns :*

Path, paths; loss, losses; name, names; page, pages; want, wants; doubt, doubts; votary, votaries.

2. *Prefix the indefinite article to the following nouns :*

Age, error, idea, omen, urn, arch, bird, cage, dream, empire, farm, grain, horse, idol, jay, king, lady, man, novice, opinion, pony, quail, raven, sample, trade, uncle, vessel, window, youth, zone, whirlwind, union, onion, unit, eagle, house, honor, hour, herald, habitation, hospital, harper, harpoon, ewer, eye, humor.

3. *Insert the definite article rightly in the following phrases :*

George second—part first—reasons most obvious—good man—wide circle—man of honor—man of world—old books—common people—same person, smaller piece—rich and poor—first and last—all time—great excess—nine muses—how rich reward—all ancient writers—in nature of things—much better course.

4. *Insert the indefinite article rightly in each of the following phrases :*

new name—very quick motion—other sheep—such power—what instance—great weight—such worthy cause—too great difference—high honor—humble station—universal law—what strange event—so deep interest—as firm hope—so great wit—humorous story—such person—few dollars—little reflection.

IV.—NOUNS.

A **noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

OBS. 1.—All words and signs taken *technically* (that is, independently of their meaning, and merely as things spoken of), are *nouns*; or, rather, are *things* read and construed as *nouns*: as, “*Us* is a personal pronoun.” —Murray. “*Th* has two sounds.”—L. v.

OBS. 2.—The learner must observe the *sense* and *use* of each word, and class it accordingly: many words commonly belonging to other parts of speech, are occasionally used as *nouns*; as, 1. "The *Ancient* of days."—*Bible*. "Of the *ancients*."—*Swift*. "For such *impertinents*."—*Steele*. "He is an *ignorant* in it."—*Id*. "To the *nines*."—*Burns*. 2. "Or any *he*, the proudest of thy sort."—*Shak*. "I am the happiest *she* in Kent."—*Steele*. "The *shes* of Italy."—*Shak*. "The *hes* in birds."—*Bacon*. 3. "Avaunt all attitude, and *stare*, and *start*, theatric!"—*Cowper*. "A *may-be* of mercy is insufficient."—*Bridge*. 4. "For the *producing* of real happiness."—*Crabb*. "*Reading, writing, and ciphering*, are indispensable to civilized man." 5. "A *hereafter*."—*Addison*. "The dread of a *hereafter*."—*Fuller*. "The deep *amen*."—*Scott*. "The *while*."—*Milton*. 6. "With *hark*, and *whoop*, and wild *halloo*."—*Scott*. "Will cuts him short with a '*What then?*'"—*Addison*.

Classes.

Nouns are divided into two general classes: **proper** and **common**.

A **proper noun** is the name of some particular individual, or people, or group; as, *Adam*, *Boston*, the *Hudson*, the *Romans*, the *Azores*, the *Alps*.

A **common noun** is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things; as, *Beast*, *bird*, *fish*, *insect*,—*creatures*, *persons*, *children*.

The particular classes, *collective*, *abstract*, and *verbal* or *participial*, are usually included among common nouns. The name of a thing *sui generis* is also called common.

A **collective noun**, or **noun of multitude**, is the name of many individuals together; as, *Council*, *meeting*, *committee*, *flock*. ✓

An **abstract noun** is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, *Goodness*, *hardness*, *pride*, *frailty*.

A **verbal** or **participial noun** is the name of some action or state of being, and is formed from a verb, like a participle, but employed as a noun; as, "The *triumphing* of the wicked is short."—*Job* xx., 5.

A thing *sui generis* (i.e., *of its own peculiar kind*), is something which is distinguished, not as an individual of a species, but as a sort by itself, without plurality in either the noun or the sort of thing; as, *Galvanism, music, geometry*.

OBS. 1.—The proper name of a person or place with an article prefixed, is generally used as a common noun; as, “He is *the Cicero* of his age,”—that is, *the orator*.—“Many a fiery *Alp*,”—that is, *mountain*: except when a common noun is understood; as, *The* [river] *Hudson*,—*The* [ship] *Amity*,—*The treacherous* [man] *Judas*.

OBS. 2.—A common noun with the definite article prefixed to it, sometimes becomes proper; as, *The Park*,—*The Strand*.

OBS. 3.—The common name of a thing or quality personified often becomes proper; as, “‘My power,’ said *Reason*, ‘is to advise, not to compel.’”—*Johnson*.

Modifications.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, **persons, numbers, genders, and cases**.

Persons.

Persons, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

There are three persons: the **first**, the **second**, and the **third**.

The **first person** is that which denotes the speaker or writer; as, “I *Paul* have written it.”

The **second person** is that which denotes the hearer or the person addressed; as, “*Robert*, who did this?”

The **third person** is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, “*James* loves his book.”

OBS. 1.—In *written* language, the *first person* denotes the writer or author; and the *second*, the reader or person addressed: except when the writer describes not himself, but some one else, as uttering to another the words which he records.

OBS. 2.—The speaker seldom refers to himself *by name* as the speaker, consequently, *nouns* are rarely used in the first person, and when they are, a pronoun is usually prefixed to them. Hence some grammarians deny the first person to *nouns* altogether.

OBS. 3.—When a speaker or writer does not choose to declare himself in the *first* person, or to address his hearer or reader in the *second*, he speaks of both or either in the *third*. Thus Moses relates what *Moses* did, and Cæsar records the achievements of *Cæsar*. So Judah humbly beseeches Joseph: "Let *thy servant* abide in stead of the lad a bondman to *my lord*."—*Gen.* xliv., 33. And Abraham reverently intercedes with God: "Oh! let not *the Lord* be angry, and I will speak."—*Gen.* xviii., 30

OBS. 4.—When inanimate things are spoken to, they are *personified*; and their names are put in the second person, because by the figure the objects are supposed to be capable of hearing.

Numbers.

Numbers, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

There are two numbers; the **singular** and the **plural**.

The **singular number** is that which denotes but one; as, "The *boy* learns."

The **plural number** is that which denotes more than one; as, "The *boys* learn."

The plural number of nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular: as, *book, books; box, boxes*.

Rules for forming the Plural.

GENERAL

I.—When the singular ends in a sound which will unite with that of *s*, the plural is generally formed by adding *s* only, and the number of syllables is not increased: as, *pen, pens; grape, grapes*.

II.—But when the sound of *s* cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds *s* to final *e*, and *es* to other terminations, and forms a separate syllable: as, *page, pages; fox, foxes*.

SPECIAL.

I.—Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es*, but do not increase the number of syllables: as, *hero*, *heroes*; *potato*, *potatoes*; *mosquito*, *mosquitoes*. The exceptions to this rule appear to be in such nouns as are not fully Anglicised; as, *cantos*, *juntos*, *solos*, etc. Other nouns in *o* add *s* only: as, *folio*, *folios*; *bamboo*, *bamboos*.

II.—Common nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*, without increase of syllables: as, *fly*, *flies*; *duty*, *duties*. Other nouns in *y* add *s* only: as, *day*, *days*; *valley*, *valleys*. So likewise proper names in *y* are sometimes varied; as, *Henry*, the *Henrys*.

III.—The following nouns in *f*, change *f* into *v*, and add *es*, for the plural: *sheaf*, *leaf*, *loaf*, *beef*, *thief*, *calf*, *half*, *elf*, *shelf*, *self*, *wolf*, *wharf*; as, *sheaves*, *leaves*, etc. *Life*, *lives*; *knife*, *knives*; *wife*, *wives*; are similar. *Staff* makes *staves*, though the compounds of *staff* are regular; as, *flagstaff*, *flagstaffs*. The greater number of nouns in *f* and *fe*, are regular; as, *fifes*, *strifes*, *chiefs*, *griefs*, *gulfs*, etc.

IV.—The following are still more irregular: *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *child*, *children*; *brother*, *brethren* [or *brothers*]; *foot*, *feet*; *ox*, *oxen*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *goose*, *geese*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *die*, *dice*; *penny*, *pence*. *Dies*—stamps, and *pennies*—coins, are regular.

V.—Many foreign nouns retain their original plural: as, *arcanum*, *arcana*; *datum*, *data*; *erratum*, *errata*; *effluvium*, *effluvia*; *medium*, *media* [or *mediums*]; *minutia*, *minutiæ*; *stratum*, *strata*; *stamen*, *stamina*; *genus*, *genera*; *genius*, *genii* [*geniuses*, for men of wit]; *magus*, *magi*; *radius*, *radii*; *appendix*, *appendices* [or *appendixes*]; *calx*, *calces*; *index*, *indices* [or *indexes*]; *vortex*, *vortices*; *axis*, *axes*; *basis*, *bases*; *crisis*, *crises*; *thesis*, *theses*; *antithesis*, *antitheses*; *diæresis*, *diæreses*; *ellipsis*, *ellipses*; *emphasis*, *emphases*; *hypothesis*, *hypotheses*; *metamorphosis*, *metamorphoses*; *automaton*, *automata*; *criterion*, *criteria* [or *criteria*]; *phenomenon*, *phenomena*; *cherub*, *cherubim*; *seraph*, *seraphim*; *beau*, *beaux* [or *beaus*].

VI.—When a title is prefixed to a proper name so as to form a sort of compound, the name, and not the title, is varied to form the plural; as, *The Miss Howards*,—*The two Mr. Clarks*. But a title not regarded as a part of one compound name, must be made plural, if it refer to more than one; as, *Messrs. Lambert and Son*,—*The Lords Calthorpe and Erskine*,—*The Lords Bishops of Durham and St. David's*,—*The Lords Commissioners of Justiciary*.

VII.—Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case: as, Sing. *father-in-law*, Plur. *fathers-in-law*, Poss. *father-in-law's*;—Sing. *court-martial*, Plur. *courts-martial*, Poss. *court-martial's*. The possessive plural of such nouns is never used.

VIII.—Compounds ending in *ful*, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns; as, *handfuls*, *spoonfuls*, *mouthfuls*, *fellow-servants*, *man-servants*, *out-pourings*, *ingatherings*, *downsittings*.

IX.—Proper names of *individuals*, strictly used as such, have no plural; but when several persons of the same name are spoken of, the noun becomes in some degree common, and admits the plural form and an article; as, *The Stuarts*,—*The Cæsars*. So likewise when such nouns are used to denote character; as, “*The Aristotles*, the *Tullys*, and the *Livys*.”

OBS. 1.—Some nouns (from the nature of the things meant) have no plural; as, *gold*, *pride*, *meekness*.

OBS. 2.—Some nouns have no singular; as, *ides*, *measles*, *tidings*, *victuals*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *vespers*, *literati*.

OBS. 3.—The proper names of *nations* and *societies* are generally plural; and, except in a direct address, they are usually construed with the definite article; as, *The Greeks*,—*The Jesuits*.

OBS. 4.—Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *sheep*, *deer*, *vermin*, *swine*, *hose*, *means*, *odds*, *news*, *species*, *series*, *apparatus*. The following are sometimes construed as singular, but more frequently and more properly, as plural: *alms*, *amends*, *pains*, *riches*, *ethics*, *mathematics*, *metaphysics*, *optics*, *politics*, *pneumatics*, and other similar names of sciences. *Bellows* and *gallows* are properly alike in both numbers (as, “Let a *gallows* be made.”—*Esther* v., 14. “The *bellows* are burned.”—*Jer.* vi., 29); but they have a regular plural in vulgar use. *Bolus*, *fungus*, *isthmus*, *prospectus*, and *rebus*, admit the regular plural.

OBS. 5.—Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, generally admit the plural form; as, *meeting*, *meetings*; but when taken distributively, they may have a plural signification without the form; as, “The *jury* were convinced.”

OBS. 6.—When other parts of speech become nouns, they either want the plural, or form it *regularly*, like common nouns of the same endings; as, “His affairs went on at *sizes* and *sevens*.”—*Arbuthnot*. “Some mathematicians have proposed to compute by *twos*; *others*, by *fours*; *others*, by *twelves*.”—*Churchill*. “Three *fourths*, nine *tenths*.”—*Id.* “Time’s *takings* and *leavings*.”—*Barton*. “The *yeas* and *nays*.”—*News-paper*. “The *ays* and *noes*.”—*Ibid.* “The *ins* and the *outs*.”—*Ibid.* “His *ands* and his *ors*.”—*Mott*. “One of the *buts*.”—*Fowle*. “In raising the mirth of *stupids*.”—*Steele*.

Genders.

Genders, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

There are three genders: the **masculine**, the **feminine**, and the **neuter**.

The **masculine gender** is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind; as, *man, father, king*.

The **feminine gender** is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind; as, *woman, mother, queen*.

The **neuter gender** is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, *pen, ink, paper*.

Some nouns may be applied to either sex; as, *cousin, friend, neighbor, parent, person, servant*. Such nouns are usually said to be of the *common gender*. Sometimes the sex can be determined by the context.

OBS.—*Gender* is to be distinguished from *sex*, the latter being a distinction of animals; the former of words, in regard to the sex which they denote. There are obviously *four* classes of nouns in this regard: 1. The names of males; 2. The names of females; 3. Names *common* to both; and 4. Names of things without sex.—EDITOR.

The sexes are distinguished in three ways:

I. By the use of different names: as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; friar, nun; gander, goose; hart, roe; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; man, woman; master, mistress; milter, spawner; nephew, niece; ram, ewe; sloven, slut; son, daughter; stag, hind; steer, heifer; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch*.

II. By the use of different terminations: as, *abbot, abbess; administrator, administratrix; adulterer, adulteress; bridegroom, bride; caterer, cateress; duke, duchess; emperor, emperess or empress; executor, executrix; governor, governess; hero, heroine; landgrave, landgravine; margrave, margravine; marquis, marchioness; sorcerer, sorceress; sultan, sultanness or sultana; testator, testatrix; tutor, tutoress or tutress; widower, widow*.

The following nouns become feminine by merely adding *ess*: *baron, deacon, hair, host, jew, lion, mayor, patron, peer, poet, priest, prior, prophet, shepherd, viscount.*

The following nouns become feminine by rejecting the last vowel and adding *ess*: *actor, ambassador, arbiter, benefactor, chanter, conductor, doctor, elector, enchanter, founder, hunter, idolator, inventor, prince, protector, songster, spectator, suitor, tiger, traitor, votary.* (450)

III. By prefixing an attribute of distinction: as, *cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow*; *man-servant, maid-servant*; *he-goat, she-goat*; *male relations, female relations.*

OBS. 1.—The names of things without life, used literally, are always of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects are often represented figuratively as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine; as, the *sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war.* Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine; as, the *moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace.*

OBS. 2.—Nouns of multitude, when they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are of the neuter gender; but when they convey the idea of plurality without the form, they follow the gender of the individuals that compose the assemblage.

OBS. 3.—Creatures whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, are generally spoken of as neuter; as, “He fired at the *deer*, and wounded it.”—“If a man shall steal an *ox* or a *sheep*, and kill it or sell it,” etc.—*Exodus xxii.*, 1.

Cases.

Cases, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words.

There are three cases: the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**.

The **nominative case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb: as, “The *boy* runs; *I* run.”

OBS.—A *finite verb* is a verb that may be used as the predicate verb in any simple proposition: as, “Fire *burns* ;” “Water *flows*.” In the sentence, “He seemed to listen,” there are two verbs: *seemed*, a finite verb, and *to listen*, which is not a finite verb, because it could not form the predicate of any proposition.

The **possessive case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the relation of property: as, "The *boy's* hat; *my* hat."

OBS. 1.—The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative *s* *preceded by an apostrophe*; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in *s*, by adding *an apostrophe only*: as, singular, *boy's*; plural, *boys'*;—sounded alike, but written differently.

OBS. 2.—Plural nouns that do not end in *s*, usually form the possessive case in the same manner as the singular; as, *man's*, *men's*.

OBS. 3.—The apostrophe and *s* are sometimes added to mere characters, to denote *plurality*, and not the possessive case; as, Two *a's*—three *b's*—four *9's*. In the following example, they are used to give the sound of a verbal termination to words that are not properly verbs: "When a man in a soliloquy reasons with himself, and *pro's* and *con's*, and weighs all his designs," etc.—*Congreve*.

The **objective case** is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition: as, "I know the *boy*; he knows *me*."

OBS.—There are sometimes used in connection with a sentence, words that form no part of its structure. Such words are said to be *independent*. A noun or a pronoun may be independent in various ways:

1. The name of a person or thing addressed; as "John, when will you go?"—"O *ye* of little faith!"
2. The name of a person or thing which is the subject of an exclamation; as, "Alas, poor *Yorick*!"
3. An expletive word, used merely to make the subject or object emphatic; as, "The *Spring*—she is a blessed thing!"—"Gad, a troop shall overcome him."

Such nouns and pronouns, although independent in *state*, require the *form* of the nominative case, and therefore, in parsing, should be said to be in that case. Interjections are always independent.

The Declension of Nouns.

The **declension** of a noun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases. Thus:—

EXAMPLE I.—FRIEND.

Sing.	<i>Nom.</i>	friend,	Plur.	<i>Nom.</i>	friends,
	<i>Poss.</i>	friend's,		<i>Poss.</i>	friends',
	<i>Obj.</i>	friend ;		<i>Obj.</i>	friends.

EXAMPLE II.—MAN.

Sing.	<i>Nom.</i>	man,	Plur.	<i>Nom.</i>	men,
	<i>Poss.</i>	man's,		<i>Poss.</i>	men's,
	<i>Obj.</i>	man ;		<i>Obj.</i>	men.

EXAMPLE III.—FOX.

Sing.	<i>Nom.</i>	fox,	Plur.	<i>Nom.</i>	foxes,
	<i>Poss.</i>	fox's,		<i>Poss.</i>	foxes',
	<i>Obj.</i>	fox ;		<i>Obj.</i>	foxes.

EXAMPLE IV.—FLY.

Sing.	<i>Nom.</i>	fly,	Plur.	<i>Nom.</i>	flies,
	<i>Poss.</i>	fly's,		<i>Poss.</i>	flies',
	<i>Obj.</i>	fly ;		<i>Obj.</i>	flies.

V.—ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

OBS.—The difference between analysis and parsing is this: in the former, only those distinctions are considered which are common to all languages, since every sentence must consist of a subject and a predicate and the words subordinate to these ; but in parsing those distinctions and peculiarities are noted which characterize different languages, and give rise to particular rules.

A **simple sentence** is one that contains only one proposition ; as, “ Fire burns.”—“ The truth will prevail.”

A **phrase** is a combination of two or more words expressing some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition ; as, “ Of a good disposition.”—“ By the means appointed.”

The subject of a sentence generally consists of a noun or a pronoun, with or without adjuncts; the predicate of a sentence consists of a verb, with or without adjuncts.

Words added *directly* to either of the principal parts are sometimes called **primary adjuncts**; as, "*Good books always deserve a careful perusal.*" Words added to other adjuncts are called **secondary adjuncts**; as, "*Suddenly* acquired wealth *very* rarely brings happiness."

Adjuncts are divided, with respect to their office, into three classes; namely, **adjective, adverbial, and explanatory.**

An **adjective adjunct** is one used to modify or limit a noun or a pronoun; as, "*Both those bad boys deserve severe punishment.*"

An **adverbial adjunct** is one used like an adverb; as, "*Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.*"

An **explanatory adjunct** is one used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "*The emperor Napoleon was banished.*"—"We, *the people*, ordain this constitution."

Nouns may be modified by adjuncts of various forms:—

1. An *article* or an *adjective*; as, "*The diligent scholar improves.*"
2. A *noun* or a *pronoun* in the possessive case; as, "*William's sister has lost her book.*"
3. A *verb* used as an adjective; as, "*The desire to excel is laudable.*"
4. A *preposition and its object*, used together as an adjective; as, "*A man of integrity obeys the dictates of conscience.*"
5. A *noun* or *pronoun* used as an explanatory adjunct; as, "*His brother Charles is idle.*"

Verbs may be modified by *adverbial adjuncts* of various forms:—

1. An *adverb*; as, "*The sun shines brightly.*"
2. A *preposition and its object*, used together as an adverb; as, "*He came from Boston.*"

An adjective, participle, noun, or pronoun, used in the predicate of a sentence, but relating to the subject, is called an **attribute**; as, "*Gold is yellow.*"—"The sun is shining."
—"Honesty is the best policy."

OBS.—The attribute, when it is a noun or a pronoun, is in the same case as the subject to which it refers; as, “It is *I*, be not afraid.”—“Who is she?”—“They believed it to be *me*.”

In analyzing a simple sentence, point out:—

1. The subject.
2. The predicate.
3. The subject noun and its adjuncts.
4. The predicate verb and its adverbial adjuncts.
5. { The object and its adjuncts, or
 { The attribute and its adjuncts.

Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

Praxis II.—Etymological.

In the Second Praxis, it is required of the pupil: to classify and analyze the sentence as in the preceding praxis; to point out, in addition, the adjuncts in each of the principal parts, and distinguish their classes; and to parse the sentence by distinguishing the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the nouns, distinguishing also the article as definite or indefinite. Thus:—

EXAMPLE 1.—ANALYZED AND PARSED.

“The Athenians carefully observed Solon’s wise laws.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *the Athenians*; the predicate is *carefully observed Solon’s wise laws*. The subject noun is *Athenians*, limited by the adjunct *the*; the predicate verb is *observed*, and its adjuncts are the adverb *carefully* and the object *laws*; the adjuncts of the object are *Solon’s* and *wise*.

PARSING.—*The* is the definite article, because it limits the noun *Athenians*.

Athenians is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular people; of the third person, because they are spoken of; of the plural number, because the noun denotes more than one; of the common gender, because it includes both sexes; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *observed*.

Carefully is an adverb, because it is added to the verb *observed*, and expresses manner.

Observed is a verb, because it expresses action.

Solon’s is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular individual; it is of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the possessive case, because it indicates the possession of *laws*.

Wise is an adjective, because it is added to the noun *laws*.

Laws is a common noun, because it is the name of a class of things; of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, and in the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *observed*.

Integrity inspires confidence. Perseverance overcomes all obstacles. Generosity always makes friends. Pleasure's call always wins an eager attention. Avarice rapidly extinguishes every generous sentiment. The study of astronomy greatly elevates the mind. The enterprising merchant has just returned from Europe. Every person highly praised William's noble conduct. Riotous indulgence very soon destroys the bodily vigor. Where did your kind father purchase that interesting book? Charles's resignation filled all Europe with astonishment. Indulgence in sloth can never lead to prosperity. The beautiful scenes of nature ever excite the admiration of mankind.

EXAMPLE 2.—ANALYZED.

Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime.

A simple declarative sentence.

Subject, *filial ingratitude*; predicate, *is a shameful crime*.

Subject noun, *ingratitude*; adjunct, *filial*.

Predicate verb, *is*; adjunct, the attribute *crime*; adjuncts of the attribute, *a* and *shameful*.

Honesty is the best policy. Liberty is a great blessing. Rose leaves are very fragrant. William soon became a very good scholar. The contract was pronounced fraudulent. Cool blows the summer breeze. The sky suddenly grew black. The soul of the diligent shall be made fat. The memory of mischief is no desirable fame. He was born a lord. Washington was twice elected President. How wonderful is sleep! When was Victoria crowned queen of England? Columbus was undoubtedly an extraordinary man. The distant hills look blue. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

Construction and Composition.

Construction is the combination of words into sentences.

Composition is the combination of sentences to express connected thought.

OBS.—In a composition the sentences are related to each other by the thoughts which they express. Without this connection, or logical relation, sentences do not form a composition. Thus the sentences in the preceding exercise for analysis do not form a composition, because the thoughts which they express are not logically related to one another.

Exercises.

Construct the following :—

A sentence with a noun, a verb, and adjuncts of each.

A sentence with a subject noun, a predicate verb, and an object with its adjuncts.

A sentence with a subject pronoun, a predicate verb, and an attribute noun, with or without adjuncts.

A sentence with an adjective attribute, with or without adjuncts.

Write three sentences of any of these kinds describing a tree.

Write four sentences describing a fish.

Write five sentences about a clock.

Write several sentences forming a short composition upon a horse.

Cautions.

1. Do not use the same word too often, nor express the same thought more than once.

2. Avoid all slang expressions.

3. Do not use too many short sentences in succession. Join some of them together so as to make the style more pleasing.

4. Be careful to *spell* all the words correctly, to use *capitals* according to the rules, and to place a period at the end of each sentence. When sentences are united, they should be separated by a comma (,). Phrases should also, usually, be set off by a comma.

Criticise the following :—

The Owl.

The owl is a curious kind of bird. (It has curious large eyes.) It cannot see in the Light. it hides away in the day-time in dark places. the sun dazzles his eyes. He comes out at night and goes flying around looking after his prey. It catches birds and moles and mice and other animals it also catches insects. There are a good many kinds of owls, such as the Eagle owl, the Cat owl the Screech owl and others. Did you ever hear an Owl hoot in the night? It makes a Kind of mournful sound, i was awfully scared one night hearing a screech owl in the woods. I couldn't think what it was. Owls are very funny creatures.

Faults.—The ideas are not well arranged. Certain words, *curious, it, etc.*, are repeated in close succession. There are too many short sentences coming together, making the style unpleasant. There are repetitions of the same thought, in the first and last sentences; and there are mistakes in capitals and punctuation. Some of the words are ill-chosen, and there are slang expressions.

In the following these faults are corrected.

The Owl.

The owl is a curious bird. It has large eyes like those of a cat; and during the day, it hides away in dark places, because it is not able to bear the dazzling light of the sun. At night it flies about, seeking its prey, which consists of birds, mice, moles, insects, etc. There are several kinds of owls, as the eagle owl, the screech owl, and the cat owl. Some of these birds are quite large. The hooting of an owl at night is a very dismal sound; and once, when I heard a screech owl in the woods, I was really frightened, for I did not know what it was. Did you ever hear an owl hoot?

Write a similar composition on each of the following subjects.

The Horse) The Cow) The Eagle. The Camel. The Elephant.
The Lion. The Ostrich. The Canary Bird. The Mocking Bird. The Crow.

VI.—ADJECTIVES.

An **adjective** is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

Classes.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, **common, proper, numeral, pronominal, participial, and compound.**

A **common adjective** is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, *Good, bad, peaceful, warlike—eastern, western, outer, inner.*

A **proper adjective** is one that is formed from a proper name ; as, *American, English, Platonic*.

A **numeral adjective** is one that expresses a definite number ; as, *One, two, three, four, five, six*, etc.

OBS.—Numeral adjectives are of three kinds:—

1. *Cardinal* ; as, *One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen*, etc.

2. *Ordinal* ; as, *First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth*, etc.

3. *Multiplicative* ; as, *Single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, quintuple or fivefold, sextuple or sixfold, septuple or sevenfold, octuple or eightfold*, etc.

A **pronominal adjective** is a definitive word which may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood ; as, “*All [men] join to guard what each [man] desires to gain.*”

OBS. 1.—The following are the principal pronominal adjectives: *All, any, both, certain, divers, each, either, else, enough, every, few, former, first, latter, last, little, less, least, much, many, more, most, neither, no or none, one, only, other, own, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those, which, what*.

OBS. 2.—A pronominal adjective, as the name implies, partakes of the nature of a pronoun, and may be considered as representing the noun, when not expressed, and therefore as having the modifications of a noun. Sometimes, however, the noun may be supplied.

A **participial adjective** is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by rejecting the idea of time ; as, *An amusing story*.

OBS.—A participial adjective is a participle used as an adjective. As a participle it conveys the idea of time ; as, “*The sun rising, darkness is dispelled.*” That is, *When the sun rises*. But as an adjective it expresses quality or condition ; as, “*The rising sun dispels the darkness.*”

A **compound adjective** is one that consists of two or more words joined together ; as, *Nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed*.

Exercise.

Classify the adjectives in the following, and state to what sub-class each of the numeral adjectives belongs :—

Brave soldiers. Innocent children. Beautiful pictures. The French army. The Copernican system. A charming prospect. A loving son. A detested crime. The lowing herd. The triple alliance. Fifty cents. Wholesome food. Luscious fruit. An inner apartment. Outer darkness. A coal-black horse. The sixteenth century. An old-fashioned clock. Many persons. Much difficulty. A Grecian fable. The Platonic system. A fresh-looking maid. Double length. A beloved child. Torturing anxiety. A sharp-witted boy.

Modifications.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of **comparison**.

OBS.—*This* and *that* are modified so as to agree with their nouns in number, thus: *this, these; that, those*.

Comparison is a variation of the adjective, to express quality in different degrees; as, *hard, harder, hardest*.

There are three degrees of comparison: the **positive**, the **comparative**, and the **superlative**.

The **positive degree** is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form; as, *hard, soft, good*.

The **comparative degree** is that which exceeds the positive; as, *harder, softer, better*.

The **superlative degree** is that which is not exceeded; as, *hardest, softest, best*.

Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of different degrees, cannot be compared; as, *two, second, all, total, immortal, infinite*.

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, *skillful, more skillful, most skillful—skillful, less skillful, least skillful*.

OBS.—Adjectives of more than one syllable, except dissyllables ending in *y* or mute *e*, rarely admit a change of termination, but are rather compared by means of the adverbs. Thus we say, *virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous*; but not *virtuous, virtuouser, virtuousest*.

Regular Comparison.

Adjectives are regularly compared, when the comparative degree is expressed by adding *er*, and the superlative, by adding *est* to them; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
great,	greater,	greatest.
wide,	wider,	widest.
hot,	hotter,	hottest.

The regular method of comparison is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and to dissyllables ending in *y* or mute *e*.

Comparison by Adverbs.

The different degrees of a quality may also be expressed, with precisely the same import, by prefixing to the adjective the adverbs *more* and *most*: as, *wise, more wise, most wise*; *famous, more famous, most famous*; *amiable, more amiable, most amiable*.

The degrees of diminution are expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs *less* and *least*: as, *wise, less wise, least wise*; *famous, less famous, least famous*; *amiable, less amiable, least amiable*.

OBS.—The prefixing of an *adverb* can hardly be called a *variation* of the adjective: the words may with more propriety be taken separately, the *degree* being ascribed to the *adverb*, or to *both* words; for both are varied in *sense* by the inflection of the former.

Irregular Comparison.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *good, better, best*; *bad or ill, worse, worst*; *little, less, least*; *much, more, most*; *many, more, most*.

Most adjectives that denote *place* or *situation*, not only form the superlative irregularly, but are also either redundant or defective in comparison. Thus:—

I.—The following nine have more than one superlative: *far*, *farther*, *farthest*, *farthest*, *farthest* or *farthermost*; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next*; *fore*, *former*, *foremost* or *first*; *hind*, *hinder*, *hindmost* or *hindmost*; *in*, *inner*, *inmost* or *innermost*; *out*, *outer* or *utter*, *outmost* or *utmost*, *outermost* or *utmost*; *up*, *upper*, *upmost* or *uppermost*; *low*, *lower*, *lowest* or *lowermost*; *late*, *later* or *latter*, *latest* or *last*.

II.—The following five want the positive: [*aft*, adv.] *after*, *aftmost* or *aftermost*; [*forth*, adv.] *further*, *furthest* or *furthermost*; *hither*, *hithermost*; *nether*, *nethermost*; *under*, *undermost*.

III.—The following want the comparative: *front*, *frontmost*; *rear*, *rearmost*; *head*, *headmost*; *end*, *endmost*; *top*, *topmost*; *bottom*, *bottommost*; *mid* or *middle*, *midst*, *midmost* or *middlemost*; *north*, *northmost*; *south*, *southmost*; *northern*, *northernmost*; *southern*, *southernmost*; *eastern*, *easternmost*; *western*, *westernmost*.

OBS. 1.—It may be remarked of the comparatives, *former* and *latter* or *hinder*, *upper* and *under* or *nether*, *inner* and *outer* or *utter*, *after* and *hither*; as well as of the Latin *superior* and *inferior*, *anterior* and *posterior*, *interior* and *exterior*, *prior* and *ulterior*, *senior* and *junior*, *major* and *minor*; that they cannot, like other comparatives, be construed with the conjunction *than*, introducing the latter term of comparison; for we never say, one thing is *former*, *superior*, etc., than another.

OBS. 2.—Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are expressed, simply relate to them, and have no modifications: except *this* and *that*, which form the plural *these* and *those*; *much*, *many*; and a few others, which are compared.

Exercise.

Compare such of the following adjectives as can be compared, regularly, irregularly, or by means of adverbs, as each may require:—

Clear, obscure, certain, full, probable, possible, clever, sagacious, weary, hard, awkward, amiable, new, old, general, perfect, able, graceful, little, much, many, virtuous, bad, rear, middle, low, late, after, universal, distinct, thoughtless, willful, cautious, negligent, discreet, inconsiderate, unquestionable, vague, correct, immortal.

VII.—PRONOUNS.

A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

Classes.

Pronouns are divided into three classes; **personal**, **relative**, and **interrogative**.

A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun that shows by its form, of what person it is.

OBS.—That is, the word itself shows whether it is of the first, second, or third person.

The *simple* personal pronouns are five: namely, *I*, of the first person; *thou*, of the second person; *he*, *she*, and *it*, of the third person.

The *compound* personal pronouns are also five: namely, *myself*, of the first person; *thyself*, of the second person; *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, of the third person.

OBS.—The compound personal pronouns are used when an action reverts upon the agent, or for special emphasis; as, “He has injured himself.”—“She herself was to blame.”

A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun that represents an antecedent word or phrase, and connects different clauses of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*; and the compounds, *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, *whatever* or *whatsoever*.

What is a kind of double relative, equivalent to *that which* or *those which*; and is therefore to be considered as including both the *antecedent* and the *relative*.

An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*; being the same in form as relatives.

OBS. 1.—*Who* is usually applied to persons only; *which*, though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to animals and inanimate things; *what* (as a mere pronoun) is applied to things only; *that* is applied indifferently to persons, animals, or things.

OBS. 2.—The pronoun *what*, having a twofold relation, represents two cases at the same time; as, “He is ashamed of *what* he has done;” that is, of *that* [thing] *which* he has done. It is usually of the singular number, though sometimes plural; as, “I must turn to the faults, or *what* appear such to me.”—*Byron*.

OBS. 3.—*What* is sometimes used both as an *adjective* and a *relative* at the same time, and is placed before the noun which it represents; as, “*What* money we had was taken away;” that is, *All the* money *that* we had, etc.—“*What* man but enters, dies;” that is, *Any* man *who*, etc. The compound *whatever* or *whatsoever* has the same peculiarities of construction; as, “We will certainly do *whatsoever* thing goeth forth out of our own mouth.”—*Jer.* xlv., 17.

OBS. 4.—*Who*, *which*, and *what*, when the affix *ever* or *soever* is added, have an unlimited signification; and, as some general term, such as *any person*, or *any thing*, is usually employed as the antecedent, they are all commonly followed by two verbs; as, “*Whoever* attends, will improve;” that is, *Any person who* attends, will improve. In analysis and parsing, supply the antecedent.

OBS. 5.—The word *as*, though usually a conjunction or an adverb, has sometimes the construction of a relative pronoun; as, “The Lord added to the church daily such [persons] *as* should be saved.”—*Acts* ii., 47.

OBS. 6.—*Whether* was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, referring to one of two things; as, “*Whether* is greater, the gold or the temple?”—*Matt.* xxiii., 17.

OBS. 7.—Interrogative pronouns represent their nouns understood, like pronominal adjectives; as, “What [deed] hast thou done?” “Which of these books will you have?” That is, Which *book*, etc.

Modifications.

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns; namely, *Persons*, *Numbers*, *Genders*, and *Cases*.

OBS. 1.—In the personal pronouns, most of these properties are indicated by the words themselves; in the relative pronoun, it is necessary to refer to the antecedent which it represents; and in the interrogative,

to the word, usually in the answer, which it represents; as, "Who comes here? A friend."

OBS. 2.—The *gender* of the personal pronouns of the first and second person is to be determined by referring to the words for which they are used, or to be considered as of the common gender.

Declension of Pronouns.

The declension of a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

The simple personal pronouns are thus declined :—

I, of the first person.

Sing. <i>Nom.</i> I,	Plur. <i>Nom.</i> we,
<i>Poss.</i> my, or mine,	<i>Poss.</i> our, or ours,
<i>Obj.</i> me ;	<i>Obj.</i> us.

Thou, of the second person.

Sing. <i>Nom.</i> thou,	Plur. <i>Nom.</i> ye, or you,
<i>Poss.</i> thy, or thine,	<i>Poss.</i> your, or yours,
<i>Obj.</i> thee ;	<i>Obj.</i> you.

He, of the third person.

Sing. <i>Nom.</i> he,	Plur. <i>Nom.</i> they,
<i>Poss.</i> his,	<i>Poss.</i> their, or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> him ;	<i>Obj.</i> them.

She, of the third person.

Sing. <i>Nom.</i> she,	Plur. <i>Nom.</i> they,
<i>Poss.</i> her, or hers,	<i>Poss.</i> their, or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> her ;	<i>Obj.</i> them.

It, of the third person.

Sing. <i>Nom.</i> it,	Plur. <i>Nom.</i> they,
<i>Poss.</i> its,	<i>Poss.</i> their, or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> it ;	<i>Obj.</i> them.

OBS. 1.—Most of the personal pronouns have two forms of the possessive case, in each number: as, *my* or *mine*, *our* or *ours*; *thy* or *thine*, *your* or *yours*; *her* or *hers*, *their* or *theirs*. The former is used before a noun expressed; the latter, when the governing noun is *understood*, or when the possessive pronoun is used as an attribute; as, “*My* powers are *thine*.”

OBS. 2.—*Mine* and *thine* were formerly used before all words beginning with a vowel sound; *my* and *thy*, before others; as, “It was thou, a man, *mine* equal, *my* guide, and *mine* acquaintance.”—*Psalm*. But this usage is now obsolete, or peculiar to the poets; as,

“Time writes no wrinkle on *thine* azure brow.”—*Byron*.

OBS. 3.—In ancient times, *he*, *his*, and *him*, were applied to things neuter. In our translation of the Bible, the pronoun *it* is employed in the nominative and the objective, but *his* is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, “Look not thou upon the wine, when *it is* red, when *it* giveth *his* color in the cup, when *it* moveth *itself* aright.”—*Prov. xxiii.*, 31. *Its* is not found in the Bible, except by misprint.

Compound Personals.

The word *self*, added to the simple personal pronouns, forms the class of *compound personal pronouns*; which are used when an action reverts upon the agent, and also when some persons are to be distinguished from others: as, sing. *myself*, plur. *ourselves*; sing. *thyself*, plur. *yourselves*; sing. *himself*, plur. *themselves*; sing. *herself*, plur. *themselves*; sing. *itself*, plur. *themselves*. They all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective.

Relatives and Interrogatives.

The relative and the interrogative pronouns are thus declined:—

Who, applied only to persons.

Sing. Nom. who,	Plur. Nom. who,
Poss. whose,	Poss. whose,
Obj. whom;	Obj. whom.

Which, *applied to animals and things.*

Sing. Nom. which,	Plur. Nom. which,
Poss. *———	Poss. ———
Obj. which ;	Obj. which.

What, *generally applied to things.*

Sing. Nom. what,	Plur. Nom. what,
Poss. ———	Poss. ———
Obj. what ;	Obj. what.

That, *applied to persons, animals, and things.*

Sing. Nom. that,	Plur. Nom. that,
Poss. ———	Poss. ———
Obj. that ;	Obj. that.

Compound Relatives.

The compound relative pronouns, *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, and *whatever* or *whatsoever*, are declined in the same manner as the simples, *who*, *which*, *what*.

Exercises.

1. Write the nominative plural of the following pronouns :—

I, thou, he, she, it, who, which, that, what.

2. Write the objective singular and plural of all the simple pronouns.

3. Write the declension of the following :—

Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, whoever, whosoever.

4. Correct the form of each of the following :—

Her's, it's, our's, your's, their's, who's, hisself, theirselves.

5. Write sentences, each containing one of the following pronouns :—

Me, them, thou, your, their, me, ye, himself, myself, themselves, who, which, whom, what, that, whoever, whichever, whomsoever.

* *Whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which*; as, "A religion *whose* origin is divine."—*Blair*.

VIII.—ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

When simple sentences are connected, they form **compound** or **complex sentences**, and are then called **clauses**.

A **clause**, therefore, is a division of a compound or a complex sentence.

Compound or complex clauses are sometimes called **members**.

A clause used as one of the principal parts of a sentence, or as an adjunct to any word in it, is called a **dependent clause**.

The clause on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, is called the **principal clause**.

A **complex sentence** is one composed of a principal clause and one or more dependent clauses.

A **compound sentence** is one composed of two or more independent clauses.

Clauses may be connected by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or adverbs (then called *conjunctive adverbs*).

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun, is often called a **relative clause**.

When two or more subjects, connected by a conjunction, belong to the same predicate, or two or more connected predicates have the same subject, the sentence should be considered simple with a **compound subject** or a **compound predicate**.

OBS.—The relative clause is a dependent clause, and the sentence in which it occurs is therefore complex. It is not, however, always a *modifying* clause, being sometimes used to express an *additional fact*. Thus, in the sentence, "This is the man that committed the deed," the relative clause modifies the noun *man*; but in the sentence, "I gave the book to John, who has lost it," it is equivalent to "and he has lost it." In each case it is used like an adjective; since the same distinction applies to adjectives as to relative clauses, some being used to modify, others to describe; as, A *wild* beast (modifying); The *huge* elephant (descriptive).

Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

Praxis III.—Etymological.

In the Third Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to classify the sentences ; to point out the component clauses ; to analyze and parse each as in the preceding praxis ; and to state the classes and modifications of the pronouns. Thus:—

FIRST EXAMPLE, ANALYZED AND PARSED.

“Children who disobey their parents, deserve punishment.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence ; the principal clause is, *Children deserve punishment*, and the dependent clause is, *Who disobey their parents*, an adjective adjunct of *children* ; the connective word is *who*.

The subject noun of the principal clause is *children* ; the predicate verb is *deserve* ; and the object is *punishment*. The adjunct of the subject noun is the dependent clause ; the other parts have no adjuncts. The subject of the dependent clause is *who* ; the predicate verb is *disobey* ; the object is *parents* ; the adjunct of *parents* is *their*.

PARSING.—*Who* is a relative pronoun, because it represents the antecedent word *children*, and connects the two clauses of the sentence ; it is of the third person, because it represents the persons spoken of ; of the plural number, because it denotes more than one ; of the common gender, because it is a term equally applicable to both sexes ; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *disobey* ; its declension in both numbers is, Nom. *who* ; Poss. *whose* ; Obj. *whom*.

Their is a personal pronoun, because it shows by its form that it is of the third person ; it is of the plural number, common gender, and in the possessive case, because it denotes the possession of parents. Its declension is, Nom. *they* ; Poss. *their*, or *theirs* ; Obj. *them*.

Parse the other words as in the preceding praxes.

SECOND EXAMPLE, ANALYZED.

“Can we see God, or must we believe in him ?”

A compound interrogative sentence, consisting of two independent clauses connected by *or*. The subject of the first clause is *we* ; the predicate verb, *can see* ; and the object, *God*. The subject of the second clause is *we* ; the predicate verb, *must believe*, modified by the adverbial phrase adjunct *in him*.

Prosperity gains many friends, but adversity tries them.

A wise son heareth his father's instruction, but a scorner heareth not rebuke.

He who conquers his passions, overcomes his greatest enemies.

You should listen patiently if you would speak effectively.

Virtue refines the affections, but vice debases them.

The poems of Homer celebrate the exploits of Achilles, who killed the Trojan prince Hector.

He who runs may read so plain a truth.

Who that has common sense can entertain so absurd a notion ?

When will you complete the task which you have undertaken ?

The eye, that sees all things, cannot see itself.

They who would govern others must first govern themselves.

Flattery often succeeds, when reason entirely fails.

We are often benefited by what we have dreaded.

Frankness, suavity, and benevolence were prominent traits in the character of Dr. Franklin.

The study of natural history expands and elevates the mind.

Get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and live contentedly.

Industry, good sense, and virtue are essential to happiness.

Exercises in Construction.

1. Write five compound sentences, each consisting of two simple clauses connected by *and* or *but*.

2. Write five complex sentences, each containing a simple relative clause.

Punctuation.—The simple clauses composing a compound sentence should be separated by a comma ; but when a comma is used to separate the parts of either, a semicolon should be employed.

A relative clause should be separated by a comma, unless it is used as a modifying adjunct.

When a relative clause is a modifying adjunct, it can often be changed to an adjective or participle ; and the sentence will then become simple. Thus, *The pupil who is diligent will excel*, can be changed to *The diligent pupil will excel*.

Sometimes a phrase consisting of a noun and an adjective can be substituted for the relative clause and the antecedent. Thus, *He who labors faithfully will succeed*, is equivalent to *A faithful laborer will succeed*.

Change the following complex into simple sentences by either of the two methods above indicated.

A man who is honest will be trusted.

Lines that are parallel never meet.

A king that oppresses his people is hated.

The key that is used is always bright.

They pitied and relieved the man who was blind.

They who slander others break the divine commandment.

He who studies diligently will improve.

He that tilleth his land shall be satisfied with bread.

The spoils belong to him who gains the victory.

Persons who are irritable are unpleasant associates.

When the relative clause is not a modifying adjunct, the sentence can be made compound, by substituting for the relative pronoun a conjunction and a personal pronoun. Thus, *John, who committed the fault, has been forgiven*, may be changed to, *John committed the fault, but he has been forgiven*.

Change in this manner the following complex to compound sentences.

Use such conjunctions as *and, if, but, because, since*.

My friend, who went to Europe, has returned.

The eye, that sees all things, cannot see itself.

Captain John Smith, who was taken by the Indians, was saved by Pocahontas.

Mr. Williams, who failed in business last year, has commenced again.

He gave the book to his brother, who has lost it.

The letter was sent by a messenger, who failed to deliver it.

The traveler narrated a very curious incident, which was not believed.

Socrates, who was pronounced by the oracle the wisest of men, was put to death by the Athenians.

Leonidas, who defended the pass of Thermopylæ against the Persian army, was a great patriot and hero.

Composition.

Write a composition consisting of simple, compound, and complex sentences, describing each of the following objects—stating its use, the parts of which it is composed, the material of which each of these parts is made, and what different trades or occupations are concerned in its manufacture.

A book. A pen. A slate. A stove. A map. A globe. A bell. A clock. A carriage. A shoe. A knife. A skate. A carpet. A plough. A silver dollar. A bank bill. An umbrella. A house. An earthen jug. A bottle. A piano. A ship. A chair. A bureau. A broom.

[The teacher should supply all information that may be needed by the pupils, in order to make the description sufficiently full and accurate, but should be careful that the pupils use their own language, and apply the rules and principles already learned. When others are violated, the corrections may be made arbitrarily. In this way the habit of correctly using language will be cultivated.]

IX.—VERBS.

A **verb** is a word that signifies *to be, to act, or to be acted upon*.

Classes.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their *form*, into four classes: **regular, irregular, redundant, and defective**.

A **regular verb** is a verb that forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*; as, *love, loved, loving, loved*.

OBS. 1.—Whether a verb is regular or irregular depends upon the changes which it undergoes in order to express differences in the mode, time, or other circumstances of the action or being indicated by the verb. Thus, the verb *walk* becomes *walked* in order to express a past action; while the participle is derived by adding *ing* or *ed*; as, *walking, walked*. These additional syllables, which change the primitive form of the verb, are called **inflections**. In some languages they are very numerous; but in English they are quite few, the language in this respect being very simple.

OBS. 2.—The *preterit* is the form for the past. There are *four parts* in every verb from which all others are derived: the *present*, the *past* or *preterit*, the *imperfect participle* (always ending in *ing*), and the *perfect participle*. When these are given all the other parts of the verb become known. Hence, they are called the *principal parts*.

An **irregular verb** is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*, as, *see, saw, seeing, seen*.

A **redundant verb** is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, *thrive, thrived* or *throve, thriving, thrived* or *thriven*.

A **defective verb** is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, *beware, ought, quoth*.

OBS.—Regular verbs form their preterit and perfect participle, by adding *d* to final *e*, and *ed* to all other terminations. The verb *hear*, *heard*, *hearing*, *heard*, adds *d* to *r*, and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided again, with respect to their *signification*, into four classes: **active-transitive**, **active-intransitive**, **passive**, and **neuter**.

An **active-transitive verb** is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing for its object; as, “Cain *slew* Abel.”

An **active-intransitive verb** is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, “John *walks*.”

A **passive verb** is a verb that represents its subject, or nominative, as being acted upon; as, “I *am compelled*.”

OBS. 1.—It must be understood that a passive verb expresses action, but action received not performed by the subject. Thus the *object of the action* becomes the *subject of the verb*. Hence, every transitive verb may be changed into a passive verb, by making the object of the former the subject of the latter.

OBS. 2.—Active-transitive verbs generally take the agent before them and the object after them; as, “Cæsar *conquered* Pompey.” Passive verbs (which are derived from *active-transitive* verbs) reverse this order, and denote that the subject, or nominative, is affected by the action; and the agent follows, being introduced by the preposition *by*; as, “Pompey *was conquered* by Cæsar.”

OBS. 3.—An active-intransitive verb, followed by a preposition and its object, will sometimes admit of being put into the passive form, the object of the preposition being assumed for the nominative, and the preposition being retained with the verb, as an adverb: as, (*Active*), “They laughed at him.”—(*Passive*), “He was laughed at.”

A **neuter verb** is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being; as, “Thou *art*.”—“He *sleeps*.”

Exercises.

1. *Classify all the verbs in the following sentences, both as to form and signification.*

[See list of Irregular Verbs, page 98.]

I mailed the letter. The letter was mailed by me. The horse was shod. The pitcher was broken. He has failed in business. The boy told an untruth. The ship has sailed. He was chosen president. I have written a letter. The boiler burst. The man is honest. He walks rapidly. The plant grows. The boy is swimming. The child is sleeping. They sat still. Give me a book. Beware of slanderers. A child ought to obey his parents.

2. *Construct another sentence from each of the verbs in the above exercise, using a different form.*

3. *Write three sentences, each containing a regular verb ;—also three, each containing an irregular verb ;—three, each containing a redundant verb ;—and one containing a defective verb.*

Modifications.

The modifications or inflections of verbs are for two purposes :—1. To express some particular manner or time of the being, action, or passion. 2. To indicate the person and number of the subject or nominative. Hence it is said :

Verbs have modifications of four kinds; namely, **moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.**

Moods.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

There are five moods: the **infinitive**, the **indicative**, the **potential**, the **subjunctive**, and the **Imperative**.

The **infinitive mood** is that form of the verb which expresses the being, action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number ; as, *To read, to speak.*

OBS. 1.—The infinitive mood has no person or number, that is, no inflections to indicate person or number, because it has no subject nominative. It may have a subject, that is a word indicating the person or thing of whom the being or action is indirectly asserted; but this word must be in the objective case, depending upon some other verb. Thus, in the sentence, *I told John to write*, John is the subject of the infinitive *write*, and the object of the verb *told*; hence, it is in the objective case.

OBS. 2.—A verb in any other mood than the infinitive, is called, by way of distinction, a *finite verb*.

The **indicative mood** is that form of the verb which simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question: as, *I write*; *you know*; *Do you know*?

The **potential mood** is that form of the verb which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity of the being, action, or passion: as, *I can read*; *we must go*.

The **subjunctive mood** is that form of the verb which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, and contingent; as, “If thou *go*, see that thou *offend* not.”

OBS.—The *subjunctive* mood is always connected with another verb. Its dependence is usually denoted by a conjunction; as, *if, that, though, lest, unless*.

The **imperative mood** is that form of the verb which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, “*Depart* thou.”—“*Be comforted*.”

Tenses.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb which distinguish time.

There are six tenses; the **present**, the **imperfect**, the **perfect**, the **pluperfect**, the **first-future**, and the **second-future**.

The **present tense** is that which expresses what now *exists*, or *is taking* place: as, “*I hear* a noise; somebody *is coming*.”

The **Imperfect tense** is that which expresses what *took* place, or *was occurring*, in time fully-past : as, “I *saw* him yesterday ; he *was walking* out.”

The **perfect tense** is that which expresses what *has taken* place, within some period of time not yet fully past ; as, “I *have seen* him to-day.”

The **pluperfect tense** is that which expresses what *had taken* place, at some past time mentioned ; as, “I *had seen* him, when I met you.”

The **first-future tense** is that which expresses what *will take* place hereafter ; as, “I *shall see* him again.”

The **second-future tense** is that which expresses what *will have taken* place, at some future time mentioned ; as, “I *shall have seen* him by to-morrow noon.”

OBS. 1.—There are two circumstances on which the distinction of tense is based :—

1. Whether the time is *present*, *past*, or *future*.

2. Whether the action is *perfect* or *imperfect*—complete or incomplete—in regard to each distinction of time. Hence, there must be six tenses to express this twofold distinction :—

1. Present	}	Imperfect or Indefinite	}	Present tense.
2. Past				Imperfect tense.
3. Future				First-future tense
4. Present	}	Perfect	}	Perfect tense.
5. Past				Pluperfect tense.
6. Future				Second-future tense.

OBS. 2.—The tenses do not all express time with equal precision. Those of the indicative mood, are the most definite. The time expressed by the same tenses (or what are called by the same names) in the other moods, is frequently relative, and sometimes indefinite.

OBS. 3.—The present tense, in the indicative mood, expresses general truths, and customary actions ; as, “Vice *produces* misery.”—“She often *visits* us.” We also use it in speaking of persons who are dead, but whose works remain ; as, “Seneca *reasons* well.”

OBS. 4.—The present tense in the subjunctive mood, and in the other moods, when preceded by *as soon as*, *after*, *before*, *till*, or *when*, is gen-

erally used with reference to future time ; as, "If he *ask* a fish, will he give him a serpent?"—*Matt.* vi., 10. "When he *arrives*, I will send for you."

OBS. 5.—In animated narrative, the present tense is sometimes substituted (by the figure *enallage*) for the imperfect ; as, "Ulysses *wakes*, not knowing where he was."—*Pope*.

OBS. 6.—The present infinitive can scarcely be said to express any particular time. It is usually dependent on another verb, and, therefore, relative in time. It may be connected with any tense of any mood ; as, "I intend *to do* it, I intended *to do* it, I have intended *to do* it," etc. It is often used to express futurity ; as, "The time *to come*."—"The world *to come*."—"Rapture yet *to be*."

Inflections.—Persons and Numbers.

As there are *two numbers* and three persons, there must be six distinctions, to express which a verb may be inflected, or changed, to agree with its subject ; but, as already stated, the inflections used in English are very few. Thus, the verb *love*, in the indicative mood, present tense, has only the following forms :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. love,	love,	1st per. go,	go,
2d per. lovest,	love,	2d per. goest,	go,
3d per. loves ;	love.	3d per. goes ;	go.

It will be seen that there are only two inflections, both being in the singular : the addition of *st* (or *est*) for the second person, and *s* (or *es*) for the third ; the first person, singular, and all the persons in the plural being alike.

OBS. 1.—The third person singular was anciently formed in *th* or *eth*, but this inflection is now only used in the formal or solemn style. *Doth*, *hath*, and *sait*h are contractions of verbs thus formed.

OBS. 2.—The customary mode of familiar as well as complimentary address is altogether plural, both the verb and the pronoun being used in that form. The singular is, however, invariably employed in reference to the Supreme Being, in poetry, and in the solemn style, generally. Although the pronoun *you* is used with a singular meaning, the verb must be plural, because the forms must agree.

OBS. 3.—In the solemn style (except in poetry, which usually contracts these forms), the second person singular of the present indicative, and that of the irregular preterits, commonly end in *est*, pronounced as a separate syllable. But as the termination *ed*, in solemn discourse, constitutes a syllable, the regular preterits form the second person singular, by adding *st*, without further increase of syllables; as, *loved*, *lovedst*—not *lovedest*. *Dost* and *hast*, and the irregular preterits *wast*, *didst*, and *hadst*, are permanently contracted. The auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, change the final *l* to *t*. To the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, the termination *est* was formerly added; but they are now generally written with *st* only, and pronounced as monosyllables, even in solemn discourse.

OBS. 4.—When the second person singular is employed in familiar discourse, it is usually formed in a manner strictly analogous to that which is now adopted in the third person singular. When the verb ends in a sound which will unite with that of *st* or *s*, the second person singular is formed by adding *st* only, and the third by adding *s* only; and the number of syllables is not increased: as, I *read*, thou *readst*, he *reads*; I *know*, thou *knowst*, he *knows*; I *take*, thou *takest*, he *takes*. For when the verb ends in mute *e*, no termination renders this *e* vocal in the familiar style, if a synæresis can take place.

OBS. 5.—But when the verb ends in a sound which will not unite with that of *st* or *s*, *st* and *s* are added to final *e*, and *est* and *es* to other terminations; and the verb acquires an additional syllable: as, I *trace*, thou *tracest*, he *traces*; I *pass*, thou *passest*, he *passes*; I *fix*, thou *fixest*, he *fixes*. But verbs ending in *o* or *y* preceded by a consonant, do not exactly follow this rule: in these, *y* is changed into *i*; and to both *o* and *i*, *est* and *es* are added without increase of syllables: as, I *go*, thou *goest*, he *goes*; I *undo*, thou *undoest*, he *undoes*; I *fly*, thou *fliest*, he *flies*; I *pity*, thou *pitiest*, he *pities*.

OBS. 6.—The auxiliaries *do*, *dost*, *does* [pronounced *doo*, *dust*, *dudz*]—*am*, *art*, *is*—*have*, *hast*, *has*,—being also in frequent use as principal verbs of the present tense, retain their peculiar form when joined to other verbs. The other auxiliaries are not varied, except in the solemn style.

OBS. 7.—The only regular terminations that are added to verbs, are *ing*, *d* or *ed*, *st* or *est*, *s* or *es*, *th* or *eth*. *Ing*, and *th* or *eth*, always add a syllable to the verb; except in *doth*, *hath*, *saith*. The rest, whenever their sound will unite with that of the final syllable of the verb, are added without increasing the number of syllables; otherwise, they are separately pronounced. In solemn discourse, however, *ed* and *est* are, by most speakers, uttered distinctly in all cases, except sometimes, when a vowel precedes,

Conjugation of Verbs.

The **conjugation** of a verb is a regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons, numbers, and participles.

OBS.—The moods and tenses are formed partly by inflections, or changes made in the verb itself, and partly by the combination of the verb or its participle, with a few short verbs called *auxiliaries*, or *helping verbs*.

There are four **principal parts** in the conjugation of every simple and complete verb; namely, the **present**, the **preterit**, the **imperfect participle**, and the **perfect participle**. A verb which wants any of these parts is called **defective**: such are most of the auxiliaries.

OBS.—The present is radically the same in all the moods, and is the part from which all the rest are formed. The present infinitive is the *root*, or *simplest form*, of the verb. The preterit and the perfect participle are regularly formed by adding *d* or *ed*, and the imperfect participle by adding *ing*, to the present.

An **auxiliary** is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of another verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion. The auxiliaries are *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*, with their variations.

OBS. 1.—*Do*, *be*, and *have*, being also principal verbs, are complete: but the participles of *do* and *have* are not used as auxiliaries; unless *having*, which forms the compound participle, may be considered as such. The other auxiliaries have no participles.

OBS. 2.—English verbs are principally conjugated by means of *auxiliaries*, the only ~~tenses~~ tenses which can be formed by the simple verb, being the present and the imperfect; as, *I love*, *I loved*. And even here an auxiliary is usually preferred in questions and negations; as, *Do you love?* *You do not love*. All the other tenses, even in their simplest form, are compounds.

OBS. 3.—The form of conjugating the active verb is often called the *Active Voice*; and that of the passive verb, the *Passive Voice*. These terms are borrowed from the *Latin* and *Greek* grammars, and are of little or no use in *English*.

Obs. 4.—English verbs having few inflections, it is convenient to insert in the conjugations the preposition *to*, to mark the infinitive; *pronouns*, to distinguish the persons and numbers; the conjunction *if*, to denote the subjunctive; and the adverb *not*, to show the form of negation. With these additions, a verb may be conjugated in *four* ways:

1. *Affirmatively*; as, I *write*, I *do write*, or I *am writing*.
2. *Negatively*; as, I *write not*, I *do not write*, or, I *am not writing*.
3. *Interrogatively*; as, *Write I?* *Do I write?* or, *Am I writing?*
4. *Interrogatively and negatively*; as, *Write I not?* *Do I not write?* or, *Am I not writing?*

Simple Form, Active or Neuter.

The simplest form of an English conjugation, is that which makes the present and imperfect tenses without auxiliaries; but, even in these, auxiliaries are required for the potential mood, and are often preferred for the indicative.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **LOVE**.

Principal Parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imper. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To love.
Perfect Tense. To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I love,	1st per. We love,
2d per. Thou lovest,	2d per. You love,
3d per. He loves;	3d per. They love.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *do* to the verb:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I do love,	1. We do love,
2. Thou dost love,	2. You do love,
3. He does love;	3. They do love.

Imperfect Tense. *or Past**Singular.*

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved ;

Plural.

1. We loved,
2. You loved,
3. They loved.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *did* to the present :—

Singular.

1. I did love,
2. Thou didst love,
3. He did love ;

Plural.

1. We did love,
2. You did love,
3. They did love.

OBS.—In a familiar question or negation, the auxiliary form is preferable to the simple. But in the solemn or the poetic style, the simple form is more dignified and graceful; as, “*Understandest* thou what thou readest ?”—“Of whom *speaketh* the prophet this ?”—*Acts*.—“Say, *heard* ye naught of lowland war ?”—*Scott*.

Pres. **Perfect Tense.**

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *have* to the perfect participle :—

Singular.

1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved ;

Plural.

1. We have loved,
2. You have loved,
3. They have loved.

Past **Pluperfect Tense.**

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *had* to the perfect participle :—

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved ;

Plural.

1. We had loved,
2. You had loved,
3. They had loved.

First-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *shall* or *will* to the present :—

1. Simply to express a future action or event :—

Singular.

1. I shall love,
2. Thou wilt love,
3. He will love ;

Plural.

1. We shall love,
2. You will love,
3. They will love.

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will love,	1. We will love,
2. Thou shalt love,	2. You shall love,
3. He shall love ;	3. They shall love.

OBS.—In interrogative sentences, the meaning of these auxiliaries is reversed. When preceded by a conjunction implying condition or uncertainty, their import is somewhat varied.

Future Perfect.
Second-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* to the perfect participle :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall have loved,	1. We shall have loved,
2. Thou wilt have loved,	2. You will have loved,
3. He will have loved ;	3. They will have loved.

OBS.—The auxiliary *shall* may also be used in the second and third persons of this tense, when preceded by a conjunction expressing condition or contingency ; as, “ If he *shall have finished* his work when I return.” And perhaps *will* may here be used in the first person to express a promise or a determination, though such usage, I think, very seldom occurs.

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.**

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *may*, *can*, or *must*, to the radical verb :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may love,	1. We may love,
2. Thou mayst love,	2. You may love,
3. He may love ;	3. They may love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, to the radical verb :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might love,	1. We might love,
2. Thou mightst love,	2. You might love,
3. He might love ;	3. They might love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries, *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*, to the perfect participle :—

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I may have loved, | 1. We may have loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst have loved, | 2. You may have loved, |
| 3. He may have loved ; | 3. They may have loved. |

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*, to the perfect participle :—

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved, | 1. We might have loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst have loved, | 2. You might have loved, |
| 3. He might have loved ; | 3. They might have loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

This tense is generally used to express some condition on which a future action or event is affirmed. It is therefore considered by some grammarians, as an elliptical form of the future.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. If I love, | 1. If we love, |
| 2. If thou love, | 2. If you love, |
| 3. If he love ; | 3. If they love. |

Imperfect Tense.

OBS.—This tense is indefinite, as it may refer to time past, present, or future.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I loved, | 1. If we loved, |
| 2. If thou loved, | 2. If you loved, |
| 3. If he loved ; | 3. If they loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

Singular. 2. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

Plural. 2. Love [ye or you,] or Do you love.

OBS.—This tense is commonly used only in the second person, but there seem to be occasional exceptions to this; as, “Blessed *be* he that blesseth thee.”—“Thy kingdom *come*.”—“My soul, turn from them—*turn* we to survey.”—*Goldsmith*.

PARTICIPLES.

1. *The Imperfect.*
Loving.

2. *The Perfect.*
Loved.

3. *The Preperfect.*
Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE.

First Person Singular.

INDICATIVE. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. POTENTIAL. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If I love, If I loved.

Second Person Singular.

INDICATIVE. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst loved, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. POTENTIAL. Thou mayst love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved. Thou mightst have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If thou love, If thou loved. IMPERATIVE. Love [thou,] *or* Do thou love.

Third Person Singular.

INDICATIVE. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. POTENTIAL. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If he love, If he loved.

First Person Plural.

INDICATIVE. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. POTENTIAL. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If we love, If we loved.

Second Person Plural.

INDICATIVE. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. POTENTIAL. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If you love, If you loved. IMPERATIVE. Love [ye *or* you,] *or* Do you love.

Third Person Plural.

INDICATIVE.—They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. POTENTIAL. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If they love, If they loved.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **SEE.****Principal Parts.**

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imp. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	To see.
<i>Perfect Tense.</i>	To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	see,	1. We see,
2. Thou	seest,	2. You see,
3. He	sees ;	3. They see.

*Past***Imperfect Tense.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou	sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He	saw ;	3. They saw.

*Present***Perfect Tense.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou	hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He	has seen ;	3. They have seen.

*Past Perfect***Pluperfect Tense.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	had seen,	1. We had seen,
2. Thou	hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He	had seen ;	3. They had seen.

First-future Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I shall see, | 1. We shall see, |
| 2. Thou wilt see, | 2. You will see, |
| 3. He will see ; | 3. They will see. |

*Future Perfect***Second-future Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall have seen, | 1. We shall have seen, |
| 2. Thou wilt have seen, | 2. You will have seen, |
| 3. He will have seen ; | 3. They will have seen. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. I may see, | 1. We may see, |
| 2. Thou mayst see, | 2. You may see, |
| 3. He may see ; | 3. They may see. |

Past
Imperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I might see, | 1. We might see, |
| 2. Thou mightst see, | 2. You might see, |
| 3. He might see ; | 3. They might see. |

*Present***Perfect Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have seen, | 1. We may have seen, |
| 2. Thou mayst have seen, | 2. You may have seen, |
| 3. He may have seen ; | 3. They may have seen. |

*Past Perfect***Pluperfect Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have seen, | 1. We might have seen, |
| 2. Thou mightst have seen, | 2. You might have seen, |
| 3. He might have seen ; | 3. They might have seen. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I	see,	1. If we see,
2. If thou	see,	2. If you see,
3. If he	see ;	3. If they see.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I	saw,	1. If we saw,
2. If thou	saw,	2. If you saw,
3. If he	saw ;	3. If they saw.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	2. See [thou,]	or Do thou see.
<i>Plural.</i>	2. See [ye or you,]	or Do you see.

PARTICIPLES.

1. <i>The Imperfect.</i> Seeing.	2. <i>The Perfect.</i> Seen.	3. <i>The Preperfect.</i> Having seen.
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CONJUGATION OF THE VERB **BE.****Principal Parts.**

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Be.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	To be.
<i>Perfect Tense.</i>	To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	am,	1. We are,
2. Thou	art,	2. You are,
3. He	is ;	3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.*Singular.*

1. I was,
2. Thou wast,*
3. He was ;

Plural.

1. We were,
2. You were,
3. They were.

Perfect Tense.*Singular.*

1. I have been,
2. Thou hast been,
3. He has been ;

Plural.

1. We have been,
2. You have been,
3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.*Singular.*

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been ;

Plural.

1. We had been,
2. You had been,
3. They had been.

First-future Tense.*Singular.*

1. I shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,
3. He will be ;

Plural.

1. We shall be,
2. You will be,
3. They will be.

Second-future Tense.*Singular.*

1. I shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,
3. He will have been ;

Plural.

1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been,
3. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.***Singular.*

1. I may be,
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be ;

Plural.

1. We may be,
2. You may be,
3. They may be.

* OBS.—In poetry, *wert* is sometimes used indicatively for *wast* ; as,

“Vainly *wert* thou wed.”—*Byron*.

“Whate’er thou art or *wert*,”—*Id.*

Imperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I might be, | 1. We might be, |
| 2. Thou mightst be, | 2. You might be, |
| 3. He might be ; | 3. They might be. |

Perfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have been, | 1. We may have been, |
| 2. Thou mayst have been, | 2. You may have been, |
| 3. He may have been ; | 3. They may have been. |

Pluperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have been, | 1. We might have been, |
| 2. Thou mightst have been, | 2. You might have been, |
| 3. He might have been ; | 3. They might have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1. If I be, | 1. If we be, |
| 2. If thou be, | 2. If you be, |
| 3. If he be ; | 3. If they be. |

Imperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| 1. If I were, | 1. If we were, |
| 2. If thou wert, or were, | 2. If you were, |
| 3. If he were ; | 3. If they were. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.***Singular.* 2. Be [thou,] or Do thou be.*Plural.* 2. Be [ye or you,] or Do you be.**PARTICIPLES.**1. *The Imperfect.*
Being.2. *The Perfect.*
Been.3. *The Preperfect.*
Having been.

Compound Form, Active or Neuter.

Active and neuter verbs may also be conjugated, by adding the Imperfect Participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes ; as, *I am writing—He is sitting.* This form of the verb is used to denote a continuance of the action or the state of being.

OBS.—In this form of the verb, the active participle is sometimes used with a passive meaning: as, “The books are now *selling* ;” instead of *being sold*.—“The designs of Providence *are carrying on*.”—*Bp. Butler.* This idiom is approved by good critics and writers.

COMPOUND FORM OF THE VERB READ.

Principal Parts of the Simple Verb.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Participle.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Read.	Read.	Reading.	Read.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be reading.

Perfect Tense. To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am reading,	1. We are reading,
2. Thou art reading,	2. You are reading,
3. He is reading;	3. They are reading.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was reading,	1. We were reading,
2. Thou wast reading,	2. You were reading,
3. He was reading;	3. They were reading.

Perfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I have been reading, | 1. We have been reading, |
| 2. Thou hast been reading, | 2. You have been reading, |
| 3. He has been reading ; | 3. They have been reading. |

Pluperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had been reading, | 1. We had been reading, |
| 2. Thou hadst been reading, | 2. You had been reading, |
| 3. He had been reading ; | 3. They had been reading. |

First-future Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall be reading, | 1. We shall be reading, |
| 2. Thou wilt be reading, | 2. You will be reading, |
| 3. He will be reading ; | 3. They will be reading. |

Second-future Tense.

- Singular.*
- | |
|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been reading, |
| 2. Thou wilt have been reading, |
| 3. He will have been reading ; |

- Plural.*
- | |
|---------------------------------|
| 1. We shall have been reading, |
| 2. You will have been reading, |
| 3. They will have been reading. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.***Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I may be reading, | 1. We may be reading, |
| 2. Thou mayst be reading, | 2. You may be reading, |
| 3. He may be reading ; | 3. They may be reading. |

Imperfect Tense.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might be reading, | 1. We might be reading, |
| 2. Thou mightst be reading, | 2. You might be reading, |
| 3. He might be reading ; | 3. They might be reading. |

Perfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I may have been reading,
 2. Thou mayst have been reading,
 3. He may have been reading ;

- Plural.* 1. We may have been reading,
 2. You may have been reading,
 3. They may have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I might have been reading,
 2. Thou mightst have been reading,
 3. He might have been reading ;

- Plural.* 1. We might have been reading,
 2. You might have been reading,
 3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I be reading, | 1. If we be reading, |
| 2. If thou be reading, | 2. If you be reading, |
| 3. If he be reading ; | 3. If they be reading. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I were reading, | 1. If we were reading, |
| 2. If thou wert reading, | 2. If you were reading, |
| 3. If he were reading ; | 3. If they were reading. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

- Singular.* 2. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] reading, or Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES.

- | | | |
|--|---------------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>The Imperfect.</i>
Being reading. | 2. <i>The Perfect.</i>
————— | 3. <i>The Preperfect.</i>
Having been reading. |
|--|---------------------------------|---|

Form of Passive Verbs.

Passive verbs, in English, are always of a compound form, being made from active-transitive verbs, by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb **BE** through all its changes: thus from the active-transitive verb *love* is formed the passive verb *be loved*.

OBS.—The passive form seems to be assumed by some intransitive verbs: as, *I am come*; *He is risen*; *They are fallen*. In this case the participle relates to the subject, and does not form a part of the predicate verb. The usual active form is preferable: as, *I have come*;—*He has risen*;—*They have arrived*.

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VERB **BE LOVED.**

Principal Parts of the Active Verb.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	To be loved.
<i>Perfect Tense.</i>	To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved,	1. We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	2. You are loved,
3. He is loved;	3. They are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was loved,	1. We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	2. You were loved,
3. He was loved;	3. They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been loved,	1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	2. You have been loved,
3. He has been loved ;	3. They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been loved,	1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	2. You had been loved,
3. He had been loved ;	3. They had been loved.

First-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be loved,	1. We shall be loved,
2. Thou wilt be loved,	2. You will be loved,
3. He will be loved ;	3. They will be loved.

Second-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	1. I shall have been loved,
	2. Thou wilt have been loved,
	3. He will have been loved ;
<i>Plural.</i>	1. We shall have been loved,
	2. You will have been loved,
	3. They will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.**

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may be loved,	1. We may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,	2. You may be loved,
3. He may be loved ;	3. They may be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might be loved,	1. We might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,	2. You might be loved,
3. He might be loved ;	3. They might be loved.

Perfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I may have been loved,
 2. Thou mayst have been loved,
 3. He may have been loved ;

- Plural.* 1. We may have been loved,
 2. You may have been loved,
 3. They may have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

- Singular.* 1. I might have been loved,
 2. Thou mightst have been loved,
 3. He might have been loved ;

- Plural.* 1. We might have been loved,
 2. You might have been loved,
 3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be loved, | 1. If we be loved, |
| 2. If thou be loved, | 2. If you be loved, |
| 3. If he be loved ; | 3. If they be loved. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved, | 1. If we were loved, |
| 2. If thou wert loved, | 2. If you were loved, |
| 3. If he were loved ; | 3. If they were loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

- Singular.* 2. Be [thou] loved, or Do thou be loved.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] loved, or Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

- | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>The Imperfect.</i>
Being loved. | 2. <i>The Perfect.</i>
Loved. | 3. <i>The Preperfect.</i>
Having been loved. |
|--|----------------------------------|---|

Form of Negation.

A verb is conjugated *negatively* by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary ; but the infinitive and participles take the negative first :—

INFINITIVE. Not to love, Not to have loved. INDICATIVE. I love not, *or* I do not love, I loved not, *or* I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. POTENTIAL. I may, can, *or* must not love ; I might, could, would, *or* should not love. I may, can, *or* must not have loved ; I might, could, would, *or* should not have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If I love not, If I loved not. PARTICIPLES. Not loving, Not loved, Not having loved.

Form of Question.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary ; as,

INDICATIVE. Do I love ? Did I love ? Have I loved ? Had I loved ? Shall I love ? Shall I have loved ? POTENTIAL. May, can, *or* must I love ? Might, could, would, *or* should I love ? May, can, *or* must I have loved ? Might, could, would, *or* should I have loved ?

Form of Question with Negation.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* and *negatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb *not* after the verb, or after the first auxiliary ; as,

INDICATIVE. Do I not love ? Did I not love ? Have I not loved ? Had I not loved ? Shall I not love ? Shall I not have loved ? POTENTIAL. May, can, *or* must I not love ? Might, could, would, *or* should I not love ? May, can, *or* must I not have loved ? Might, could, would, *or* should I not have loved ?

Irregular Verbs.

An *irregular verb* is a verb that does not form the preterit and perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed* ; as, *see*, *saw*, *seeing*, *seen*.

OBS. 1.—When the verb ends in a sharp consonant, *t* is sometimes improperly substituted for *ed*, making the preterit and the perfect participle irregular in spelling, when they are not so in sound ; as, *distrest* for *distressed*, *tost* for *tossed*, *mixt* for *mixed*, *crackt* for *cracked*.

OBS. 2.—When the verb ends with a smooth consonant, the substitution of *t* for *ed* produces an irregularity in sound, as well as in writing. In some such irregularities, the poets are indulged for the sake of rhyme; but the best speakers and writers of prose prefer the regular form wherever good use has sanctioned it: thus, *learned* is better than *learnt*; *burned*, than *burnt*; *penned*, than *pent*; *absorbed*, than *absorpt*; *spelled*, than *spelt*; *smelled*, than *smelt*.

OBS. 3.—The following alphabetical list exhibits the simple irregular verbs, as they are now generally used. In this list, and also in that of the redundant verbs, those preterits and participles which are supposed to be preferable, and best supported by authorities, are placed first.

List of the Irregular Verbs.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imp. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Be,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne or born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beat or beaten.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.
Bid,	bid or bade,	bidding,	bid or bidden.
Bide,	bode,	biding,	bode.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,†	cleft or clove,	cleaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.

* *Borne* signifies *carried*; *born* signifies *brought forth*.

† *Cleave*, to split, is irregular as above; *cleave*, to stick, is regular, but *clave* was formerly used in the preterit for *cleaved*.

Irregular Verbs.—Continued.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imp. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk or drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Eat,	eat or ate,	eating,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Get,	got,	getting,	got or gotten.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden or hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held or holden.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie (to rest),	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.

Irregular Verbs.—Continued.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imp. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Outdo,	cutdid,	outdoing,	outdone.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Read,	rěad,	reading,	rěad.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden.
Ring,	rang <i>or</i> rung,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Run,	ran <i>or</i> run,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk <i>or</i> shrank,	shrinking,	shrunk <i>or</i> shrunk en.
Sing,	sung <i>or</i> sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk <i>or</i> sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slid <i>or</i> slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten <i>or</i> smit
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spitting,	spit <i>or</i> spitten
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung <i>or</i> sprang,	springing,	sprung.

Irregular Verbs.—Continued.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imp. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode,	striding,	stridden <i>or</i> strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck <i>or</i> stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Swim,	swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden <i>or</i> trod.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

List of the Redundant Verbs.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Awake,	awoke <i>or</i> awaked,	awaking,	awoke <i>or</i> awaked.
Belay,	belaid <i>or</i> belayed,	belaying,	belaid <i>or</i> belayed.
Bend,	bent <i>or</i> bended,	bending,	bent <i>or</i> bended.
Bereave,	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved,	bereaving,	bereft <i>or</i> bereaved.
Bet,	betted <i>or</i> bet,	betting,	betted <i>or</i> bet.
Blend,	blended <i>or</i> blent,	blending,	blended <i>or</i> blent.
Bless,	blessed <i>or</i> blest,	blessing,	blessed <i>or</i> blest.
Build,	built <i>or</i> builded,	building,	built <i>or</i> builded.
Burn,	burned <i>or</i> burnt,	burning,	burned <i>or</i> burnt.
Catch,	caught <i>or</i> catched,	catching,	caught <i>or</i> catched.

Redundant Verbs.—*Continued.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Clothe,	clothed <i>or</i> clad,	clothing,	clothed <i>or</i> clad.
Crow,	crew <i>or</i> crowed,	crowing,	crowed.
Curse,	cursed <i>or</i> curst,	cursing,	cursed <i>or</i> curst.
Dare,	dared <i>or</i> durst,	daring,	dared.
Dig,	dug <i>or</i> digged,	digging,	dug <i>or</i> digged.
Dream,	dreamed <i>or</i> drēamt,	dreaming,	dreamed <i>or</i> drēamt
Dress,	dressed <i>or</i> drest,	dressing,	dressed <i>or</i> drest.
Dwell,	dwelt <i>or</i> dwelled,	dwelling,	dwelt <i>or</i> dwelled.
Geld,	gelded <i>or</i> gelt,	gelding,	gelded <i>or</i> gelt.
Gild,	gilded <i>or</i> gilt,	gilding,	gilded <i>or</i> gilt.
Gird,	girded <i>or</i> girt,	girding,	girded <i>or</i> girt.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graven <i>or</i> graved.
Hang,	hanged <i>or</i> hung,	hanging,	hanged <i>or</i> hung.
Heave,	heaved <i>or</i> hove,	heaving,	heaved <i>or</i> hoven.
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed <i>or</i> hewn.
Kneel,	knelt <i>or</i> kneeled,	kneeling,	knelt <i>or</i> kneeled.
Knit,	knit <i>or</i> knitted,	knitting,	knit <i>or</i> knitted.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laded <i>or</i> laden.
Lean,	leaned <i>or</i> lēant,	leaning,	leaned <i>or</i> lēant.
Leap,	leaped <i>or</i> lēapt,	leaping,	leaped <i>or</i> lēapt.
Learn,	learned <i>or</i> learnt,	learning,	learned <i>or</i> learnt.
Light,	lighted <i>or</i> lit,	lighting,	lighted <i>or</i> lit.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed <i>or</i> mown.
Pen (to coop),	penned <i>or</i> pent,	penning,	penned <i>or</i> pent.
Quit,	quitted <i>or</i> quit,	quitting,	quitted <i>or</i> quit.
Rap,	rapped,	rapping,	rapped <i>or</i> rapt.
Reave,	reft <i>or</i> reaved,	reaving,	reft <i>or</i> reaved.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	riven <i>or</i> rived.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawed <i>or</i> sawn.
Seethe,	seethed <i>or</i> sod,	seething,	seethed <i>or</i> sodden.
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shaped <i>or</i> shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved <i>or</i> shaven.
Shear,	sheared <i>or</i> shore,	shearing,	sheared <i>or</i> shorn.
Shine,	shone <i>or</i> shined,	shining,	shone <i>or</i> shined.
Show,	showed,	showing,	shown <i>or</i> showed.
Slit,	slit <i>or</i> slitted,	slitting,	slit <i>or</i> slitted.
Smell,	smelled <i>or</i> smelt,	smelling,	smelled <i>or</i> smelt.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sown <i>or</i> sowed.
Speed,	sped <i>or</i> speeded,	speeding,	sped <i>or</i> speeded.
Spell,	spelled <i>or</i> spelt,	spelling,	spelled <i>or</i> spelt.
Spill,	spilled <i>or</i> spilt,	spilling,	spilled <i>or</i> spilt.

Redundant Verbs.—Continued.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Imperf. Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Split,	split <i>or</i> splitted,	splitting,	split <i>or</i> splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled <i>or</i> spoilt,	spoiling,	spoiled <i>or</i> spoilt.
Stave,	staved <i>or</i> stove,	staving,	staved <i>or</i> stove.
Stay,	staid <i>or</i> stayed,	staying,	staid <i>or</i> stayed.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung <i>or</i> stringed.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed <i>or</i> strown.
Sweat,	sweat <i>or</i> sweated,	sweating,	sweat <i>or</i> sweated.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled <i>or</i> swollen.
Thrive,	throve <i>or</i> thrived,	thriving,	thriven <i>or</i> thrived.
Wax,	waxed,	waxing,	waxed <i>or</i> waxen.
Wet,	wet <i>or</i> wetted,	wetting,	wet <i>or</i> wetted.
Wont,	wont,	wonting,	wont <i>or</i> wonted.
Work,	worked <i>or</i> wrought,	working,	worked <i>or</i> wrought.

Defective Verbs.

When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are, of course, also wanting. All the auxiliaries, except *do*, *be*, and *have*, are defective ; but, as auxiliaries, they become parts of other verbs, and do not *need* the parts which are technically said to be “*wanting*.”

OBS. 1.—The following list contains all our defective verbs, except *methinks*, with its preterit *methought*, which is not only defective, but impersonal and irregular. It is equivalent to *it thinks me*.

List of the Defective Verbs.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterit.</i>
Beware,	—	Shall,	should.
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must,	must.	Wis,	wist.
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

OBS. 2.—*Beware* is not used in the indicative present. *Must* is never varied in termination. *Ought* is invariable, except in the solemn style, where we find *oughtest*. *Will* is sometimes used as a principal verb, and

as such is regular and complete. *Quoth* is used only in ludicrous language, and is not varied. It seems to be properly the third person singular of the present, for it ends in *th*; and *quod* was formerly used as the preterit.

OBS. 3.—*Wis*, preterit *wist*, to know, to think, to suppose, to imagine, appears to be now nearly or quite obsolete; but it seems proper to explain it, because it is found in the Bible; as, “I *wist* not, brethren, that he was the high priest.”—*Acts*. *Wit*, to know, and *wot*, knew, are also obsolete except in the phrase *to wit*; which, being taken abstractly, is equivalent to the adverb *namely*, or to the phrase, *that is to say*.

OBS. 4.—Some verbs, from the nature of the subject to which they refer, can be used only in the third person singular: as, It *rains*; it *snows*; it *freezes*; it *hails*; it *lightens*; it *thunders*. These have been called *impersonal* verbs. The neuter pronoun *it*, which is always used before them, does not seem to represent any noun, but, in connection with the verb, merely to express a state of things.

Exercises.

1. *State the classes and modifications of the verbs in the following sentences:—*

The house might have been built in time. The ship was wrecked. He should have finished his task. The young lady has been well educated. What has been done cannot be repaired. I will go out this afternoon, unless it rain. The horse must be shod, or he will become lame. They could not have known what they were doing. The merchant is said to have failed. The boy fell into the water, and he would have been drowned, if he had been unable to swim. He must have been mad to have committed the rash act. O, how happy we might have been. I will call upon him, if he desire it. I will go, and you shall not prevent me. I shall fail, for no one will aid me. I should like to accept the invitation. He would be willing to pay for the privilege. I would not do it, if I could. You shall do it, for I will compel you. You will not commit so base an act! If it snow to-morrow, I cannot go. You ought to have tried to oblige your friend. Beware, lest your anger overcome you.

2. *Write sentences, each containing an active verb, transitive or intransitive, as directed in the following:—*

In the indicative mood, perfect tense; indicative pluperfect; subjunctive present; subjunctive imperfect; potential present; potential

perfect ; infinitive present ; infinitive perfect ; indicative first future ; potential pluperfect ; imperative ; indicative second future ; potential imperfect ; indicative imperfect.

3. Write sentences, each containing a passive verb with the same modifications as in the above.

X.—PARTICIPLES.

A **participle** is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun ; and is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed* to the verb.

OBS.—Participles retain the *essential meaning* of their verbs ; and, like verbs, are either *active-transitive*, *active-intransitive*, *passive*, or *neuter*, in their signification. For this reason many have classed them with the verbs ; but their *formal meaning* is obviously different. They convey no affirmation, but usually relate to nouns or pronouns, like *adjectives*, except when they are joined with auxiliaries to form the compound tenses ; or when they have in part the nature of substantives, like the Latin gerunds.

Classes.

English verbs have severally three participles : the **imperfect**, the **perfect**, and the **preperfect**.

OBS.—Various names have been given to the participles ; as their order is undisputed, they may be conveniently called the *First*, the *Second*, and the *Third*.

The **imperfect participle** is that which ends commonly in *ing*, and implies a *continuance* of the being, action, or passion ; as, *loving* (active), *being loved* (passive).

The **perfect participle** is that which ends commonly in *ed* or *en*, and implies a *completion* of the being, action, or passion ; as, *loved* (passive).

OBS.—The participle in *ing* represents the action or state as *continuing* and ever *incomplete* ; it is therefore rightly termed the *imperfect* par-

ticiples: whereas the participle in *ed* always has reference to the action as *done* and *complete*; and is by proper contradistinction called the *perfect* participle.

Obs.—The perfect participle is essentially *passive*. Hence, in the case of intransitive and neuter verbs, this part of the verb cannot be used by itself.

The **preperfect participle** is that which takes the sign *having*, and implies a *previous completion* of the being, action, or passion; as, *having loved* (active), *having been loved* (passive).

Obs.—If this participle is to be named with reference to its meaning, there is perhaps no better term for it than the epithet *preperfect*,—a word which explains itself, like *prepaid* or *prerequisite*. Of the many other names, the most correct one is *pluperfect*,—which is a term of very nearly the same meaning. Not because this compound is really of the pluperfect *tense*, but because it always denotes being, action, or passion, that is, or was, or will be, *completed before* the doing or being of something else; and, of course, when the latter thing is represented as past, the participle must correspond to the pluperfect tense of its verb; as, “*Having explained* her views, it was necessary she should expatiate on the vanity and futility of the enjoyments promised by Pleasure.” Here *having explained* is equivalent to *when she had explained*.

The imperfect participle of an active verb is always formed by adding *ing* to the radical verb; as, *look, looking*.

The imperfect participle of a passive verb is formed by prefixing *being* to the perfect participle; as, *being loved*.

The perfect participle is regularly formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the radical verb.

Note.—For the perfect participles of irregular verbs, see lists, pp. 98–101.

The preperfect participle of an active verb is formed by prefixing *having* to the perfect participle; that of a passive verb, by prefixing *having been*; as, *having written, having been written*.

Thus, the English verb, in the active form, has, in fact, only two participles—the imperfect and the preperfect; and in the passive, three—the imperfect, the perfect, and the preperfect.

Participles may be separated into two other classes: those which participate the properties of a verb and an adjective, and those which participate the properties of a verb and a noun. The latter are sometimes called *gerundives*.

The following are examples of each:—

First Class.—Verb and Adjective.

He came *running* very swiftly.
 She, *dying*, gave it me.
 The enemy *having been defeated* fled.
 She stood *wringing* her hands.
 Error *wounded* writhes in pain.
 The Justice read *amused, amazed*.

Second Class.—Verb and Noun. (GERUNDIVES.)

She is fond of *reading* history.
 After *having paid* the money he retired.
 He was released on *giving* bail.
 In *keeping* His commandments there is great reward.
 Before *leaving* the city he paid his debts.

OBS. 1.—Participles often become *adjectives*, and are construed before nouns to denote quality. The terms so converted form the class of *participial adjectives*. Words of a participial form may be regarded as adjectives: 1. When they reject the idea of time, and denote something customary or habitual, rather than a transient act or state; as, A *lying* rogue, *i.e.*, one addicted to lying. 2. When they admit adverbs of comparison; as, A *more learned* man. 3. When they are compounded with something that does not belong to the verb; as, *unfeeling, unfelt*. There is no verb *to unfeel*; therefore, no participle *unfeeling* or *unfelt*. Adjectives are generally placed before their nouns; participles, after them.

OBS. 2.—To distinguish the participle from the participial noun, the learner should observe the following *four* things: 1. *Nouns* take articles and adjectives before them; *participles*, as such, do not. 2. Nouns may govern the possessive case, but not the objective; *participles* may govern the objective case, but not the possessive. 3. *Nouns* may be the subjects or objects of verbs; *participles* cannot. 4. *Participial nouns* express actions as things; *participles* refer actions to their agents or recipients.

Exercises.

1. Write the participles of the verbs given below in the following form :

Write

	<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>
<i>Imperfect.</i>	Writing.	Being written.
<i>Perfect.</i>	_____	Written.
<i>Preperfect.</i>	Having written.	Having been written.

Make, give, seek, speak, hurt, feed, wear, smite, swim, know, think, tell, work, clothe, catch, teach, tread, dream, kneel, shoe, ride, put, lie, lay, say, sit, set, spend, steal.

2. Write sentences each containing a participle derived from one or more of these verbs.

3. Write five sentences each containing a participle of the second class.

XI.—ADVERBS.

An **adverb** is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

OBS. 1.—Adverbs briefly express what would otherwise require several words; as, *Now*, for *at this time*—*Here*, for *in this place*—*Very*, for *in a high degree*—*Diligently*, for *in an industrious manner*.

OBS. 2.—There are several combinations of short words which are used adverbially, and which, as idiomatic phrases, it is scarcely necessary or possible to separate in analysis or parsing; as, *Not at all*, *at length*, *in vain*.

Classes.

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes; namely, adverbs of **time**, of **place**, of **degree**, and of **manner**.

Adverbs of **time** are those which answer to the question, *When?* *How long?* *How soon?* or *How often?* including these which ask.

OBS.—Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of time present ; as, *Now, yet, to-day, presently, instantly, immediately.*
2. Of time past ; as, *Already, yesterday, lately, recently, anciently, heretofore, hitherto, since, ago, erewhile.*
3. Of time to come ; as, *To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth, by-and-by, soon, ere long.*
4. Of time relative ; as, *When, then, before, after, while or whilst, till, until, seasonably, betimes, early, late.*
5. Of time absolute ; as, *Always, ever, never, aye, eternally, perpetually, continually.*
6. Of time repeated ; as, *Often, oft, again, occasionally, frequently, sometimes, seldom, rarely, now-and-then, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, once, twice, thrice, or three times, etc.*
7. Of the order of time ; as, *First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, etc.*

Adverbs of **place** are those which answer to the question, *Where ? Whither ? Whence ?* or *Whereabout ?* including these which ask.

OBS.—Adverbs of place may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of place in which ; as, *Where, here, there, yonder, above, below, about, around, somewhere, anywhere, elsewhere, everywhere, nowhere, wherever, within, without, whereabout, hereabout, thereabout.*
2. Of place to which ; as, *Whither, hither, thither, in, up, down, back, forth, inwards, upwards, downwards, backwards, forwards.*
3. Of place from which ; as, *Whence, hence, thence, away, out.*
4. Of the order of place ; as, *First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, etc.*

Adverbs of **degree** are those which answer to the question, *How much ? How little ?* or, to the idea of *more or less.*

OBS.—Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of excess in abundance : as, *Much, too, very, greatly, far, besides ; chiefly, principally, mainly, generally ; entirely, full, fully, completely, perfectly, wholly, totally, altogether, all, quite, clear, stark ; exceedingly, excessively, extravagantly, intolerably ; immeasurably, inconceivably, infinitely.*
2. Of equality or sufficiency ; as, *Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as, even.*

3. Of deficiency or abatement ; as, *Little, scarcely, hardly, merely, barely, only, but, partly, partially, nearly, almost.*

4. Of quantity in the abstract ; as, *How*, (meaning, *in what degree*,) *however, howsoever, everso, something, nothing, anything*, and other nouns of quantity used adverbially.

Adverbs of **manner** are those which answer to the question, *How?* or, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show *how* a subject is regarded.

OBS.—Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:—

1. Of manner from quality ; as, *Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, quickly*, and many others formed by adding *ly* to adjectives of quality.

2. Of affirmation or assent ; as, *Verily, truly, indeed, surely, certainly, doubtless, undoubtedly, certes, forsooth.*

3. Of negation ; as, *No, nay, not, nowise.*

4. Of doubt ; as, *Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance, peradventure, may-be.*

5. Of mode or way ; as, *Thus, so, how, somehow, however, howsoever, like, else, otherwise, across, together, apart, asunder, namely, particularly, necessarily.*

6. Of cause ; as, *Why, wherefore, therefore.*

Conjunctive Adverbs.

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect the clauses of a sentence, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner : adverbs that are so used, are called **conjunctive adverbs**.

OBS. 1.—A conjunctive adverb introducing a dependent clause relates to the predicate verb in that clause, while the clause itself relates to the predicate verb of the principal clause. The words most frequently used in this way are the following : *after, as, before, since, till, until, when, where, while* or *whilst*. *Because*, answering to the question *why*, *wherefore*, *for what reason* (each of which is adverbial), may be also regarded as a conjunctive adverb. There are other words, as *also, besides, hence, however, therefore*, etc., that imply a logical connection of sentences or propositions ; but they are not, grammatically, connective words.

OBS. 2.—The word *even*, generally considered an adverb, as very frequently used, seems to perform the office of no part of speech, but to be employed merely to give *emphasis* to the particular word or phrase which it precedes ; as, “ *Even* the great are not free from vice.”—“ I, *even* I only, am left.”

OBS. 3.—The words *yes* and *yea*, expressing a single affirmation, and *no* and *nay*, expressing a simple negation, are always independent. They generally answer a question, and are equivalent to a whole sentence. They cannot, therefore, be properly considered as adverbs, but rather as affirmative or negative particles. The word *amen*, meaning *so let it be*, is of a similar character and usage.

Modifications.

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a few are compared after the manner of adjectives : as, *Soon, sooner, soonest* ;—*often, oftener, oftenest* ;—*long, longer, longest*.

The following are irregularly compared : *well, better, best* ; *badly or ill, worse, worst* ; *little, less, least* ; *much, more, most* ; *far, farther, farthest* ; *forth, further, furthest*.

OBS.—Most adverbs of *quality* will admit the comparative adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, before them : as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely* ; *culpably, less culpably, least culpably*.

Exercises in Construction.

1. Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of manner.
2. Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of place.
3. Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of time.
4. Write five sentences, each containing an adverb of degree.
5. Write sentences each containing one of the following adverbs :—

Always, whether, seldom, often, truly, chiefly, seldom, patiently, earnestly, very, move, how, indeed, first, secondly, perhaps, doubtless, however, whence, hither, yesterday, by-and-by, hitherto, heretofore, somewhere, anywhere.

6. Write complex sentences, each consisting of a principal and dependent clause connected by one of the following conjunctive adverbs :—

When, while, where, till, since, before, after, as, because.

XII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.

Classes.

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, **copulative** and **disjunctive**; and some of each of these sorts are **corresponsive**.

A **copulative conjunction** is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition: as, “He *and* I shall not dispute; *for, if* he has any choice, I shall readily grant it.”

A **disjunctive conjunction** is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning; as, “Be not overcome [by] evil, *but* overcome evil with good.”—*Rom. xii., 21.*

The **corresponsive conjunctions** are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers or answers to another; as, “John came *neither* eating *nor* drinking.”—*Matthew xi., 18.*

The following are the principal conjunctions:—

Copulative; *And, as, both, because, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.*

Disjunctive; *Or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.*

Corresponsive; *Both—and; as—as; as—so; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though, or although—yet.*

XIII.—PREPOSITIONS.

A **preposition** is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

OBS. 1.—Prepositions are neither principal parts of a sentence, nor are they adjuncts. They are simply words used to express *relation*.

OBS. 2.—Prepositions introduce phrases that are generally used as adjuncts; as, “A man *of reputation* ;” equivalent to, A *reputable* man.—“*In this place* they settled ;” equivalent to, *Here* they settled.—“*Fit for use*,” in which the phrase *for use* limits the adjective *fit*. Such phrases are usually called *prepositional phrases*.

OBS. 3.—The noun or pronoun before which a preposition is placed is called its object, and the preposition always expresses the relation between its object and the word to which the prepositional phrase is an adjunct. Thus in the examples given above, *of* expresses the relation between *man* and *reputation* ; *in*, between *settled* and *place* ; and *for*, between *fit* and *use*.

List of the Prepositions.

The following are the principal prepositions, arranged alphabetically: *Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid or amidst, among or amongst, around, at, athwart ;—Bat- ing, before, behind, below, beneath, beside or besides, between or betwixt, beyond, by ;—Concerning ;—Down, during ;—Ere, ex- cept, excepting ;—For, from ;—In, into ;—Mid or midst ;— Notwithstanding ;—Of, off, on, over, overthwart ;—Past, pend- ing ;—Regarding, respecting, round ;—Since ;—Through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward or towards ;—Under, un- derneath, until, unto, up, upon ;—With, within, without.*

OBS. 1.—The words in the preceding list are generally prepositions. But when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation, they are either adjectives or adverbs. *For*, when it signifies *be- cause*, is a conjunction ; *without*, when used for *unless*, and *notwith- standing*, when placed before a nominative, are usually referred to the class of conjunctions also.

OBS. 2.—Several words besides those contained in the foregoing list are (or have been) occasionally employed in English as prepositions ; as, *A* (chiefly used before participles), *abaft, adown, afore, aloft, aloof, alongside, anear, anent, aslant, aslope, astride, atween, atwixt, by-west, cross, dehors, despite, inside, left-hand, mauer, minus, onto, opposite, outside, per, plus, sans, spite, thorough, traverse, versus, via, withal, withinside.*

OBS. 3.—Two or more words are sometimes used as a compound preposition, being combined so as to express a single relation. The following are examples: *as to, as for, according to, because of, out of, from out, from among, from between, over against.*

Exercise.

Insert prepositions in place of the dashes in the following sentences:—

Plead — the dumb. Qualify thyself — action — study. Think often — the value — time. Be not dismayed — difficulties. Live — peace — all men. Keep — the bounds — moderation. Jest not — serious subjects. Take no part — slander. Guilt starts — its own shadow. Grudge not — giving. Go not — sleep — malice. Depend not — the assistance — others, but rely — yourself. Many fail — grasping at things — their reach. Go — the world — your eyes open.

XIV.—INTERJECTIONS.

An **interjection** is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

OBS. 1.—Interjections have no relation to any other words in a sentence. They are neither adjuncts nor principal parts, being entirely independent. Properly considered, therefore, the interjection is not a part of speech, or part of a sentence.

OBS. 2.—Of pure interjections but few are ordinarily admitted into books. As words or sounds of this kind serve rather to indicate feeling than to express thought, they seldom have any truly definable signification. Their use also is so variable, that there can be no very accurate classification of them. Some significant words properly belonging to other classes, are ranked with interjections, when uttered with emotion and in an unconnected manner.

List of the Interjections.

The following are the principal interjections, arranged according to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate: 1. Of joy; *eigh! hey! io!*—2. Of sorrow; *oh! ah! hoo! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay! or welaway!*—3. Of won-

der ; *heigh ! ha ! strange ! indeed !*—4. Of wishing, earnestness, or vocative address ; (often with a noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute ;) *O !*—5. Of praise ; *well-done ! good ! bravo !*—6. Of surprise with disapproval ; *whew ! hoity-toity ! hoida ! zounds ! what !*—7. Of pain or fear ; *oh ! ooh ! ah ! eh ! O dear !*—8. Of contempt ; *fudge ! pugh ! poh ! pshaw ! pish ! tush ! tut ! humph !*—9. Of aversion ; *foh ! faugh ! fie ! fy ! foy !*—10. Of expulsion ; *out ! off ! shoo ! whew ! begone ! avaunt ! aroynt !*—11. Of calling aloud ; *ho ! soho ! what-ho ! hollo ! holla ! hallo ! halloo ! hoy ! ahoy !*—12. Of exultation ; *ah ! aha ! huzza ! hey ! heyday ! hurrah !*—13. Of laughter ; *ha, ha, ha ; he, he, he ; te-hee, te-hee.*—14. Of salutation ; *welcome ! hail ! all hail !*—15. Of calling to attention ; *ho ! lo ! la ! law ! look ! see ! behold ! hark !*—16. Of calling to silence ; *hush ! hist ! whist ! 'st ! aw ! mum !*—17. Of dread or horror ; *oh ! ha ! hah ! what !*—18. Of languor or weariness ; *heigh-ho ! heigh-ho-hum !*—19. Of stopping ; *hold ! soft ! avast ! whoa !*—20. Of parting ; *farewell ! adieu ! good-by ! good-day !*—21. Of knowing or detecting ; *oho ! aha ! ay-ay !*—22. Of interrogating ; *eh ? ha ? hey ?*

OBS.—Besides these, there are several others, too often heard, which are unworthy to be considered as parts of a cultivated language. The frequent use of interjections savors more of thoughtlessness than of sensibility.

XV.—ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

Phrases.

A **phrase** is a combination of two or more words expressing some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition ; as, “Of a good disposition.”—“To be plain with you.”—“Having loved his own.”

A phrase may be used in three ways : 1, as one of the principal parts of a sentence ; 2, as an adjunct ; 3, it may be independent.

An adjunct phrase is **adjective, adverbial, or explanatory.**

A **substantive phrase** is one used in the place of a noun; as, "*To do good* is the duty of all."

An **independent phrase** is one that is not related to, or connected with, any word in the rest of the sentence; as, "*He failing*, who shall meet success?"—" *To be plain with you*, I think you in fault."

The **principal part** of a phrase is that upon which all the other parts depend; as, "Under every *misfortune*."—" *Having exhausted* every expedient."

Phrases are either **simple, complex, or compound.**

A **simple phrase** is one unconnected with any other; as, "Of an obliging disposition."

A **complex phrase** is one that contains a phrase or a clause, as an adjunct of its principal part; as, "By the bounty of heaven."—"To be plain with you."

A **compound phrase** is one composed of two or more co-ordinate phrases; as, "Stooping down and looking in."

Phrases are also classified as to their form, depending upon the introducing word, or the principal part; thus,

1. A phrase, introduced by a preposition, is called a *prepositional phrase*; as, "By doing good."—"Of an engaging disposition."

2. A phrase the principal part of which is a verb in the infinitive mood, is called an *infinitive phrase*; as, "*To be good* is *to be happy*."

3. A phrase the principal word of which is a participle, is called a *participial phrase*; as, "A measure *founded on justice*."

OBS. 1.—A preposition that introduces a phrase, serves only to express the relation between the principal part, and the word of the sentence on which the phrase depends.

A phrase, used as the subject or the object of a verb, must be *substantive* in office, and, with a strict adherence to grammatical rules, can only be *infinitive* in form ; as, “*To disobey parents is sinful.*”—“William loves *to study grammar.*” Participial phrases are, however, sometimes used by good writers in this way ; as, “*Hunting the buffalo*, is one of the sports of the West.”—“John’s father opposed *his going to sea.*”

A phrase, used as an attribute, may be substantive or adjective in office, and may have the following forms :—

1. *Infinitive* ; as, “The object of punishment is *to reform the guilty.*”—“His conduct is *greatly to be admired.*” [In the latter example, the phrase is *adjective*, *to be admired* being equivalent to *admirable.*]

2. *Prepositional* ; as, “He is *in good health.*”—“The train was *behind time.*” [In each of these examples, the phrase is *adjective.*]

An adjective phrase may have the following forms :—

1. *Prepositional* ; as, “Carelessness *in the use of money* is a vice.”

2. *Infinitive* ; as, “The desire *to do good* is praiseworthy.”

3. *Participial* ; as, “*Seeing the danger*, he avoided it.”

An adverbial phrase may have the following forms :—

1. *Prepositional* ; as, “He was attentive *to his business.*”

2. *Infinitive* ; as, “They were anxious *to ascertain the truth.*”

3. *Idiomatic* ; as, “*In vain.*”—“*Day by day.*”—“*By and by.*”—“*As a general thing.*”

An explanatory phrase is always *substantive* in office, and infinitive in form ; as, “It is pleasant *to see the sun.*”

The independent phrase is various in form and character. It may be distinguished as—

1. *Infinitive* ; as, “*To be candid*, I was in fault.”

2. *Participial* ; as, “*Considering the circumstances*, much credit is due.”

3. *Vocative* ; as, “*Boast not, my dear friend*, of to-morrow.”

4. *Pleonastic* ; as, “*The blessing of the Lord*, it maketh rich.”

5. *Absolute* ; as, “ *The sun having risen, the mists were dispersed.*”

OBS. 1.—The last form of this phrase is often adverbial in signification ; as in the example given, in which it is equivalent to the clause, *when the sun had risen*. It is, therefore, independent only in construction.

OBS. 2.—An adverbial phrase may be modified by an adverb ; as, “ *It lasts but for a moment ;*” i.e., *but* equivalent to *only*, and modifying the adverbial phrase, *for a moment*.

OBS. 3.—A phrase or a clause is sometimes used as the object of a preposition, and thus forms a prepositional phrase of a complex or anomalous character ; as, “ *Blows mildew from between-his-shriveled lips.*”—“ *That depends on who-can-run-the-fastest.*”

Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

Praxis IV.—Etymological.

In the Fourth Praxis, it is required of the pupil : to classify and analyze the sentence as in the preceding praxis ; to classify and analyze each phrase ; and to parse the sentence, distinguishing the parts of speech, and all their classes and modifications. Thus :—

EXAMPLE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

“ *Ah ! who can tell the triumphs of the mind,
By truth illumined, and by taste refined ?*”

ANALYSIS.—A simple interrogative sentence.

The subject is *who* ; the predicate verb, *can tell* ; the object of which is *triumphs*, modified by the complex adjective phrase, *of the mind illumined by truth, and refined by taste*.

The principal part of the phrase is *mind* ; its adjuncts are *the* and the compound adjective phrase, *illumined by truth, and refined by taste*, which consists of the two co-ordinate participial phrases connected by *and*.

The principal part of the former is *illumined*, and its adjunct, the simple adverbial phrase, *by truth* ; the principal part of the latter is *refined*, and its adjunct, the simple adverbial phrase *by taste*.

Ah is an independent word.

PARSING.—*Ah !* is an interjection, because it is a simple exclamation of wonder or admiration.

Who is an interrogative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, common in gender ; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *can tell*.

By is a preposition, because it shows the relation between *truth* and *illumined*, the phrase *by truth* being an adjunct of *illumined*.

Truth is a common noun, and abstract, because it is the name of a quality. It is of the third person, singular number, neuter gender; and in the objective case, because it is the object of the preposition *by*.

Illumined is a perfect participle from the regular passive verb *be illumined*. It performs the office of a verb, by expressing passion; and of an adjective, by modifying the noun *mind*.

And is a conjunction, because it connects the two phrases, *by truth illumined, by taste refined*; it is copulative, because it expresses an addition.

[Parse the other words as in the preceding praxes.]

Having sold his patrimony he engaged in merchandise.

The bounty displayed on the earth equals the grandeur manifested in the heavens.

In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits both of the active and the suffering virtues.

By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed.

He, stooping down and looking in, saw the linen clothes lying; yet went he not in.

Cheerfulness keeps up a kind of day-light in the mind, and fills it with a steady and perpetual serenity.

Sitting is the best posture for deliberation; standing for persuasion; a judge, therefore, should speak sitting; a pleader, standing.

The pleasures of sense resemble a foaming torrent; which, after a disorderly course, speedily runs out, and leaves an empty and offensive channel.

Most of the troubles which we meet with in the world, arise from an irritable temper, or from improper conduct.

The meeting was so respectable, that the propriety of its decision can hardly be questioned.

They who are moderate in their expectations, meet with few disappointments.

The soul becomes great by the habitual contemplation of great objects.

Exercises in Construction.

1. Write sentences, each containing a phrase of one of the following forms.

A simple adjective phrase. A simple adverbial phrase. A complex adjective phrase. A complex adverbial phrase. A compound phrase. An explanatory phrase. A participial phrase. A complex prepositional phrase. An infinitive phrase. A vocative phrase. An absolute phrase. An idiomatic phrase. A phrase used as the subject. A phrase used as an object. A phrase used as an adjective attribute. A phrase used as a substantive attribute.

2. *In the following sentences, substitute a phrase for one of the clauses.*

Examples.

1. When the ship arrives, I shall see my friend.

2. After the pupils had recited their lessons, the teacher dismissed them.

3. They erected a crucifix, and prostrated themselves before it.

4. A quadruped is an animal that has four legs.

1. On the arrival of the ship, I shall see my friend.

2. The pupils having recited their lessons, the teacher dismissed them.

3. Having erected a crucifix, they prostrated themselves before it.

4. A quadruped is an animal having four legs.

When spring comes, the fields resume their verdure.

After the enemy had been defeated, they fled.

I will meet you, when the train arrives.

As he was stooping down, he saw the man's hiding-place.

Because he was inexperienced, they deceived him.

I fixed my eyes on the object, and soon perceived that it was a bird.

The farm was carefully cultivated, and it yielded abundant crops.

The rain fell in torrents, and we took refuge in an inn.

As I did not receive your letter, I did not know of your misfortune.

He who had been so idle and dissolute came to beggary.

He sacrificed his health and happiness that he might indulge in sensual pleasure. [Use the infinitive phrase.]

She neglected the improvement of her mind, that she might study her appearance in the glass.

3. *Construct a sentence from each of the following phrases.*

At all times. In the hour of temptation. In the morning of life. To be useful to others. To be diligent in study. The moon having risen. The battle having been lost. By doing good. Preserving a good reputation. Trembling with excitement. Discouraged by misfortune. From day to day. By and by. As a general thing. He being young and without experience. Overcome with emotion. Suppressing her tears.

Questions for Review.

I.—THE SENTENCE.

What is the subject of a sentence?—The predicate?

What is a proposition?—What do propositions form?

What is a sentence?

What must every sentence contain?

What are adjuncts?—What is a simple sentence?

How are sentences divided ?

What is a declarative sentence ?—An interrogative sentence ?—An imperative sentence ?—An exclamatory sentence ?

II.—PARTS OF SPEECH.

Of what does Etymology treat ?

How many and what are the parts of speech ?

What is an article ?—What are the examples ?

What is a noun ?—What examples are given ?

What is an adjective ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is a pronoun ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is a verb ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is a participle ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is an adverb ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is a conjunction ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is a preposition ?—How is this exemplified ?

What is an interjection ?—What examples are given ?

What is a definition ?—A rule of grammar ?—A praxis ?—An example ?—An exercise ?

What is parsing ?

III.—ARTICLES.

What is an ARTICLE ?

Are *an* and *a* different articles, or the same ?

When is *an* used, and what are the examples ?

When is *a* used, and what are the examples ?

What form of the article do the sounds of *w* and *y* require ?

Repeat the alphabet, with *an* or *a* before the name of each letter.

Name the parts of speech, with *an* or *a* before each name.

How are the two articles distinguished in grammar ?

Which is the *definite* article, and what does it denote ?

Which is the *indefinite* article, and what does it denote ?

What modifications have the articles ?

IV.—NOUNS.

What is a NOUN ?—Can you give some examples ?

Into what general classes are nouns divided ?

What is a *proper* noun ?—a *common* noun ?

What particular classes are included among common nouns ?

What is a *collective* noun ?—an *abstract* noun ?—a *verbal* or *participial* noun ?

What is a thing *sui generis* ?

What modifications have nouns ?

What are Persons in grammar ?

How many persons are there, and what are they called ?

What is the *first* person ?—the *second* person ?—the *third* person ?

What are Numbers in grammar ?

How many numbers are there, and what are they called?
 What is the *singular* number?—the *plural* number?
 How is the plural number of nouns regularly formed?
 What are the rules for adding *s* and *es* to form the plural?

V.—NOUNS.

What are *Genders* in grammar?
 How many genders are there, and what are they called?
 What is the *masculine* gender?—the *feminine* gender?—the *neuter* gender? What nouns may be said to be in the *common* gender?
 What are *Cases* in grammar?
 How many cases are there, and what are they called?
 What is the *nominative* case?
 What is the subject of a verb?
 What is the *possessive* case?
 How is the possessive case of nouns formed?
 What is the *objective* case?
 What is the object of a verb, participle, or preposition?
 What is the declension of a noun?
 How do you decline the nouns *friend*, *man*, *fox*, and *fly*?

VL.—ANALYSIS, CONSTRUCTION, AND COMPOSITION.

What is *ANALYSIS*?
 What is a simple sentence?—a phrase?
 Of what does the subject of a sentence consist?
 How are adjuncts divided?
 What is an adjective adjunct?—an adverbial adjunct?—an explanatory adjunct?
 By what adjuncts may nouns be modified?—Verbs?
 What is an attribute?
 In analyzing a sentence, what should be pointed out?
 What is construction?—Composition?
 When do sentences form a composition?

VII.—ADJECTIVES.

What is an *ADJECTIVE*?—How is this exemplified?
 Into what classes may adjectives be divided?
 What is a *common* adjective?—a *proper* adjective?—a *numeral* adjective?
 —a *pronominal* adjective?—a *participial* adjective?—a *compound* adjective?
 What modifications have adjectives?
 What is *Comparison* in grammar?
 How many, and what are the degrees of comparison?
 What is the *positive* degree?—the *comparative* degree?—the *superlative* degree?
 What adjectives cannot be compared?
 What adjectives are compared by means of adverbs?
 How are adjectives regularly compared?—Compare *great*, *wide*, and *hot*.

To what adjectives are *er* and *est* applicable?
 Is there any other mode of expressing the degrees?
 How are the degrees of diminution expressed?
 How do you compare *good*, *bad* or *ill*, *little*, *much*, and *many*?
 How do you compare *far*, *near*, *fore*, *hind*, *in*, *out*, *up*, *low*, and *late*?

VIII.—PRONOUNS.

What is a PRONOUN?—Give the example.
 How are pronouns divided?
 What is a *personal* pronoun?—Tell the personal pronouns.
 What is a *relative* pronoun?—Tell the relative pronouns.
 What peculiarity has the relative *what*?
 What is an *interrogative* pronoun?—Tell the interrogatives.
 What modifications have pronouns?
 What is the declension of a pronoun?
 How do you decline the pronouns *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*?
 What is said of the compound personal pronouns?
 How do you decline *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*?
 How do you decline the compound relative pronouns?

IX.—ANALYSIS.

What is a clause?—What are members?
 What is a dependent clause?—a principal clause?
 What is a complex sentence?—a compound sentence?
 How may clauses be connected?
 What is a relative clause?
 Is the relative clause dependent or independent?
 Is it always a *modifying* clause?—Illustrate.
 What is a compound subject or predicate?

X.—VERBS.

What is a VERB?—What are the examples?
 How are verbs divided with respect to their form?
 What is a *regular* verb?—an *irregular* verb?—a *redundant* verb?—a *defective* verb?
 How are verbs divided with respect to their signification?
 What is an *active-transitive* verb?—an *active-intransitive* verb?—a *passive* verb?—a *neuter* verb?
 What modifications have verbs?
 What are Moods in grammar?
 How many moods are there, and what are they called?
 What is the *infinitive* mood?—the *indicative* mood?—the *potential* mood?
 —the *subjunctive* mood?—the *imperative* mood?

XI.—VERBS.

What are Tenses in grammar?
 How many tenses are there, and what are they called?

What is the *present* tense?—the *imperfect* tense?—the *perfect* tense?—the *pluperfect* tense?—the *first-future* tense?—the *second-future* tense?

What are the Person and Number of a verb?

How many persons and numbers belong to verbs?

How are the second and third persons singular formed?

What is the conjugation of a verb?

What are the *principal parts* in the conjugation of a verb?

What is a verb called which wants some of these parts?

What is an *auxiliary* verb?

What verbs are used as auxiliaries?

XII.—CONJUGATION.

What is the simplest form of an English conjugation?

What is the first example of conjugation?

What are the principal parts of the verb LOVE?

How many and what tenses has the *infinitive* mood?—the *indicative*?—the *potential*?—the *subjunctive*?—the *imperative*?

What is the compound form of active and neuter verbs?

What peculiar meaning does this form convey?

How are passive verbs formed?

How is a verb conjugated *negatively*?

How is the form of negation exemplified?

How is a verb conjugated *interrogatively*?

How is the form of question exemplified?

How is a verb conjugated *interrogatively* and *negatively*?

What verbs in English are defective?

What tenses are wanting in these verbs?

What verbs are called *impersonal*?

XIII.—PARTICIPLES.

What is a PARTICIPLE? and how is it generally formed?

How many participles are there, and what are they called?

How is the *imperfect* participle defined, and what are the examples?

How is the *perfect* participle defined, and what are the examples?

How is the *preperfect* participle defined, and what are the examples?

How is the imperfect participle formed?

How is the perfect participle formed?

How is the preperfect participle formed?

How many participles has the active verb?—the passive verb?

Into what other classes may participles be separated?

Which class are called *gerundives*?

XIV.—ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

What is an ADVERB?—What is the example?

To what classes may adverbs be reduced?

Which are adverbs of *time*?—of *place*?—of *degree*?—of *manner*?

What are *conjunctive* adverbs?

Have adverbs any modifications?

Compare *well*, *badly* or *ill*, *little*, *much*, *far* and *forth*.

What is a CONJUNCTION?—How are conjunctions divided?

What is a *copulative* conjunction?—a *disjunctive* conjunction?—a *corresponsive* conjunction?

What are the copulative conjunctions?—the disjunctive?—the corresponsive?

XV.—PREPOSITIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

What is a PREPOSITION?—How are the prepositions arranged?

What are the prepositions beginning with *a*?—with *b*?—with *c*?—with *d*?—with *e*?—with *f*?—with *i*?—with *m*?—with *n*?—with *o*?—with *p*?—with *r*?—with *s*?—with *t*?—with *u*?—with *w*?

What is an INTERJECTION?—How are interjections arranged?

What are the interjections of joy?—of sorrow?—of wonder?—of wishing or earnestness?—of praise?—of surprise?—of pain or fear?—of contempt?—of aversion?—of expulsion?—of calling aloud?—of exultation?—of laughter?—of salutation?—of calling to attention?—of calling to silence?—of surprise?—of languor?—of stopping?—of parting?—of knowing or detecting?—of interrogating?

XVI.—ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

What is a *phrase*?

How may a phrase be used?—What is a *substantive phrase*?

What is an *independent phrase*?—the *principal part* of a phrase?

What is a *simple phrase*?—What is a *complex phrase*?

What is a *compound phrase*?

How are phrases classified as to their form?

Of what form are attribute phrases?—Explanatory phrases?

PART III.

SYNTAX.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement of words in sentences.

OBS. 1.—The word *syntax* is derived from two Greek words—*syn*, meaning *together*, and *taxis*, *arrangement*. It is equivalent, in meaning, to *synthesis* or *construction*, which is the reverse of *analysis*. Syntax has reference only to those principles and rules which serve to guide us in the construction of sentences. The principles of *analysis* lie much deeper in the subject of grammar—are much more fundamental, than the technical considerations which form the groundwork of syntactical rules.

Sentential analysis is founded upon the *general laws* of language; and, therefore, its principles are as applicable to one language as another; syntactical rules, on the other hand, can, as a general thing, have reference only to the particular language, the use of which they are designed to direct.

In order to be skilled in syntax, or the construction of sentences, we must know how the words are related to each other in the expression of thought. For example, if the words *John* and *book* are to be joined, and we know that they are to denote that the book belongs to John, we say *John's book*, expressing in this way the relation of property.

Again, if we are to join the words *the teacher*, *he*, and *love* together, to form a sentence, we must know the relations. Thus suppose *the teacher* is the subject of the action expressed by the verb *love*, and *he* is the object of the action; then the sentence must be, *The teacher loves him*, giving to the verb and pronoun their proper forms according to the relations. But suppose *he* is to be the subject, and *the teacher* the object; then the sentence would be, *He loves the teacher*. This, as will be seen, requires a different *arrangement* of the words, as well as a different inflection of the pronoun. Usually the subject is placed before the verb, and the object after it.

When a word standing in a certain relation to another word is required, on that account, to undergo some inflection or modification, it is said to be *governed* by the other word. Thus, in the above, *John*, standing as the possessor of *book*, was changed to *John's*; and *he*, when used as the object of the verb, was required to assume the objective form, *him*. In the former case, *John's* is said to be governed by *book*, and *him* by *loves*.

Again, it would not do to say *Birds flies*, because the form of the verb is *singular*, while the subject is *plural*; and the two must agree. Hence, the expression should be *Birds fly*. This will illustrate what is meant by *agreement*. Hence the following definitions.

The **relation** of words, is their dependence, or connection, according to the sense.

The **agreement** of words, is their similarity in person, number, gender, case, mood, tense, or form.

The **government** of words, is that power which one word has over another, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The **arrangement** of words, is their collocation, or relative position, in a sentence.

Rules of Syntax.

The **Rules of Syntax** are designed to guide in the application of the principles of grammar to the construction of sentences.

As given below these rules are classified and arranged according to the syntactical topics to which they respectively relate.

Rules of Relation.

I.—Articles relate to the nouns which they limit.

II.—Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns.

III.—Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs.

IV.—Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions.

V.—Prepositions show the relation of things.

Rules of Agreement.

VI.—A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

VII.—A noun or a personal pronoun used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case.

VIII.—A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number.

IX.—When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number ; but when it conveys the idea of unity, the verb must be singular.

X.—When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number.

XI.—When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number.

XII.—When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed.

XIII.—Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing.

XIV.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender.

XV.—When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it in the plural number ; but when it conveys the idea of unity, the pronoun must be singular.

XVI.—When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number.

XVII.—When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number.

Rules of Government.

XVIII.—A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed.

XIX.—Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and perfect participles, govern the objective case.

XX.—Prepositions govern the objective case.

XXI.—The preposition *to* commonly governs the infinitive mood, and connects it to a finite verb, or some other part of speech.

Miscellaneous Rules.

XXII.—The active verbs, *bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see,* and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition *to*.

XXIII.—A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive, present; and a mere supposition, with indefinite time, by a verb in the subjunctive, imperfect; but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mood.

XXIV.—A noun or a pronoun is put in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word.

XXV.—Conjunctions connect either words or sentences.

XXVI.—Interjections have no dependent construction.

OBS. 1.—Syntactical rules are limited to the construction of *sentences*, as separate portions of discourse; the consideration of those principles and rules which regulate the combination of sentences into paragraphs, and these again into particular kinds of composition, is not comprised in the subject of *grammar*, but falls within the province of its kindred arts, *rhetoric* and *logic*.

OBS. 2.—Some of the rules here given embody the principles already presented in the definitions of etymology, and, owing to the paucity of inflections in English, are of little practical use in the construction of sentences.

OBS. 3.—Analysis and synthesis, or construction, should go together, the former illustrating and facilitating the latter, and giving accuracy in composition; since it will be found that the pupils who have been

trained to analyze sentences, becoming in this way familiar with their structure, and the relation of their parts, will have a clearer and fuller comprehension of language, as well as a more correct style of writing.

As the rules afford practical directions, a new class of exercises is here introduced,—the correction of improper expressions, or **false syntax**, as usually called.

Under the twenty-six principal rules and their notes (*subordinate rules*) and observations (showing *various usages*) are included the directions requisite to guide the pupil in the analysis, parsing, construction, and correction of sentences. These are classified according to the syntactical topics to which they respectively relate.

I.—RELATION.

Rule I.—Articles.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit; as, “At *a* little distance from *the* ruins of *the* abbey, stands *an* aged elm.”

Exceptions.

1. The definite article, used intensively, may relate to an *adjective* or *adverb* of the comparative or the superlative degree; as, “A land which was *the* mightiest.”—*Byron*. “*The* farther they proceeded, *the* greater appeared their alacrity.”—*Dr. Johnson*.

2. The indefinite article is sometimes used to give a collective meaning to an *adjective* of *number*; as, “Thou hast *a* few names, even in Sardis.”—*Revelation*. “There are *a* thousand things which crowd into my memory.”—*Addison*.

Observations.

1. Articles often relate to nouns *understood*; as, “The [*river*] Thames.”—“Pliny the younger” [*man*].—“The honorable [*body*], the Legislature.”—“The animal [*world*] and the vegetable world.”—“Neither to the right [*hand*] nor to the left” [*hand*].—*Bible*. “He was a good man and a just” [*man*].—*Ib*.

2. When an *adjective* precedes the noun, the article is placed before the adjective, that its power may extend over that also; except the adjectives *all*, *such*, *many*, *what*, *both*, and those which are preceded by

the adverbs *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*; as, “*All the materials were bought at too dear a rate.*”—“*Like many an other poor wretch, I now suffer all the ill consequences of so foolish an indulgence.*”

3. Articles, according to their own definition, belong *before* their nouns; but the definite article and an adjective seem sometimes to be placed after the noun to which they both relate; as, “*Section the Fourth.*”—“*Henry the Eighth.*”

4. When the definite article is prefixed to comparatives and superlatives (exception first), the article has the force of an adverb.

5. The article *the* is sometimes elegantly used instead of a possessive pronoun; as, “*Men who have not bowed the knee to the image of Baal.*”

6. When *an* or *a* is put before an adjective of number (exception second), the adjective and the plural noun following it are taken together as a *unit*.

7. *An* or *a* has sometimes the import of *each* or *every*; as, “*He came twice a year.*” The article in this sense with a preposition understood, is preferable to the mercantile *per*, so frequently used; as, “*Fifty cents [for] a bushel,*”—rather than, “*per bushel.*”

8. *A*, as prefixed to participles in *ing*, or used in composition, is a *preposition*; being, probably, the French *a*, signifying *to*, *at*, *on*, *in*, or *of*; as, “*They burst out a laughing.*”—*M. Edgeworth*. “*He is gone a hunting.*”—“*She lies a-bed all day.*”—“*He stays out a-nights.*”—“*They ride out a-Sundays.*” *Shakspeare* often uses the prefix *a*, and sometimes in a manner peculiar to himself; as, “*Tom’s a cold.*”—“*a weary.*”

9. *An* is sometimes used as a *conjunction*, signifying *if*; as,

“*Nay, an thou’lt mouthe, I’ll rant as well as thou.*”—*Shak.*

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—When the indefinite article is required, *a* should always be used before the sound of a consonant, and *an*, before that of a vowel; as, “*With the talents of an angel, a man may be a fool.*”—*Young*.

Exception.—Words commencing with *h*, and accented on the second syllable, require *an* instead of *a*; as, *An historical essay.*—*An hexagonal figure.*

II.—When nouns are joined in construction, without a close connection and common dependence, the article must be repeated; as, “*She never considered the quality, but the merit of her visitors.*”

III.—When adjectives are connected, and the qualities belong to things individually different, though of the same name, the article should be repeated ; as, *A black and a white horse ;*—i.e., *two horses, one black and the other white.*

IV.—When adjectives are connected, and the qualities all belong to the same thing or things, the article should not be repeated ; as, *“A black and white horse ;”*—i.e., *one horse, piebald.*

OBS. 1.—The reason of the two preceding notes is this ; by a repetition of the article before several adjectives in the same construction, a repetition of the noun is implied ; but without a repetition of the article, the adjectives are confined to one and the same noun.

OBS. 2.—To avoid a repetition, we sometimes, with one article, join inconsistent qualities to a *plural* noun ; as, *“The Old and New Testaments,”*—for, *“The Old and the New Testament.”* But the phrases, *“The Old and New Testament,”* and, *“The Old and the New Testaments,”* are both obviously incorrect.

V.—The article should not be used before the names of virtues, vices, passions, arts or sciences ; before simple proper names ; or before any noun whose signification is sufficiently definite without it ; as, *“Falsehood is odious.”*—*“Iron is useful.”*—*“Beauty is vain.”*

VI.—When titles are mentioned merely as titles, or names of things merely as names or words, the article should not be used ; as, *“He is styled Marquis.”*—*“Ought a teacher to call his pupil Master ?”*

VII.—In expressing a comparison, if both nouns refer to the same subject, the article should not be inserted ; if to different subjects, it should not be omitted ; thus, if we say, *“He is a better teacher than poet,”* we compare different qualifications of the same man ; but if we say, *“He is a better teacher than a poet,”* we refer to different men.

VIII.—The definite article, or some other definitive word, is generally required before the antecedent to the pronoun *who* or *which* in a restrictive clause ; as, *“The men who were present, consented.”*

IX.—The article is generally required in that construction which converts a participle into a verbal noun ; as, “*The triumphing of the wicked is short.*”—“*They shall be an abhorring unto all flesh.*”—*Isaiah.*

X.—The article should not be prefixed to a participle that is not taken in all respects as a noun ; as, “*He made a mistake in giving out the text.*” Not *the giving out.*

False Syntax.

Correct the following sentences, and show in what way the rule is violated in each.

When the corrections are made orally, the formulæ given may be used, in the judgment of the teacher, the chief object being kept in view, which is not to check the exercise of intelligence by mechanical repetition, but to exercise the critical faculty of the learner, and teach him to make a practical application of his knowledge of principles and rules.

EXAMPLE.—He went into an house.

FORMULÆ.—Not proper, because the article *an* is used before *house*, which begins with the sound of the consonant *h*. But, according to Note I., under Rule I., “When the indefinite article is required, *a* should always be used before the sound of a consonant, and *an* before that of a vowel.” Therefore, *an* should be *a* ; thus, He went into *a* house.

I.

This is an hard saying.

Passing from an earthly to an heavenly diadem.

Few have the happiness of living with such an one.

She evinced an uniform adherence to the truth.

This is truly an wonderful invention.

He is an younger man than we supposed.

An humorsome child is never long pleased.

Your friend is a honorable man.

The elephant is a herbivorous animal.

She was taken with a hysterical fit.

II.

Avoid rude sports : an eye is soon lost, or bone broken.

As the drop of the bucket and dust of the balance.

Not a word was uttered, nor sign given.

I despise not the doer, but deed.

Crime consists not in the act but motive.

III.

What is the difference between the old and new method?
 The sixth and tenth have a close resemblance.
 Is Paris on the right hand or left?
 Does Peru join the Atlantic or Pacific ocean?
 He was influenced both by a just and generous principle.
 The book was read by the old and young.
 I have both the large and small grammar.
 Are both the north and south line measured?
 Are the north line and south line measured?
 Are both the north and south measured?
 Are both the north lines and south measured?

IV.

Is the north and the south line measured?
 Are the two north and the south lines both measured?
 A great and a good man looks beyond time.
 They made but a weak and an ineffectual resistance.
 The Alleghany and the Monongahela rivers form the Ohio.
 I rejoice that there is another and a better world.
 Were God to raise up another such a man as Moses.
 The light and the worthless kernels will float.

V.

Cleon was another sort of a man.
 There is a species of an animal called a seal.
 Let us wait in the patience and the quietness.
 The contemplative mind delights in the silence.
 Arithmetic is a branch of the mathematics.
 You will never have another such a chance.
 I expected some such an answer.
 And I persecuted this way unto the death.

VI.

He is entitled to the appellation of a gentleman.
 Cromwell assumed the title of a Protector.
 Her father is honored with the title of an Earl.
 The chief magistrate is styled a President.

The highest title in the State is that of the Governor.

The oak, the pine, and the ash are names of whole classes of objects.

VII.

He is a better writer than a reader.

He was an abler mathematician than a linguist.

I should rather have an orange than apple.

VIII.

Words which are signs of complex ideas, are liable to be misunderstood.

Carriages which were formerly in use were very clumsy.

The place is not mentioned by geographers who wrote at that time.

IX.

Means are always necessary to accomplishing of ends.

By seeing of the eye, and hearing of the ear, learn wisdom.

In keeping of His commandments, there is great reward.

For revealing of a secret, there is no remedy.

Have you no repugnance to torturing of animals?

X.

By the breaking the law, you dishonor the lawgiver.

An argument so weak is not worth the mentioning.

In the letting go our hope, we let all go.

Avoid the talking too much of your ancestors.

The cuckoo keeps the repeating her unvaried notes.

Forbear the boasting of what you can do.

Promiscuous.

The path of truth is a plain and a safe one.

This statement is merely a hypothesis.

There was an harshness in his words.

Neither the rules nor examples are correct.

He fully deserved the name of a traitor.

He is a more effective writer than a speaker.

What sort of an animal is an oyster?

She was carrying an ewer of water.

He was busy in the translating a French work.

This passage has another and a different meaning.

It showed what kind of a man he was.

What is the cost of a hour-glass ?

Is there any difference between the upper and lower side ?

Travelers who visited the country were put to death.

Parsing.

In the parsing exercise under each rule, the pupil is required to apply the information given in the observations. Hence they should be read or studied very carefully.

Parse the articles in the following sentences as in the example.

EXAMPLE.—“He was a friend to the unfortunate.”

A is the indefinite article, and relates to the noun *friend*, according to the rule,—Articles relate to the nouns which they limit.

The is the definite article, and relates to *persons*, understood (*unfortunate persons*), according to the rule, etc.

Charles the Fifth abdicated the throne of Germany. The longer he lived the more he feared to die. He was the victor in a hundred conflicts. The farmer sold his wheat at one dollar a bushel. Many an innocent man has been wrongfully condemned. The oracle pronounced Socrates the wisest of men. He tried to set the clock a going.

Rule II.—Adjectives.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns; as, “He is a *wise man*, though *he* is *young*.”

Exceptions.

1. An adjective sometimes relates to a *phrase* or *sentence*, which is made the subject of an intervening verb; as, “*To insult the afflicted*, is *impious*.”—“*That he should refuse*, is not *strange*.”

2. With an infinitive or a participle denoting being or action in the abstract, an adjective is sometimes also taken *abstractly*; that is, without reference to any particular noun, pronoun, or other subject; as, “*To be sincere*, is to be *wise*, *innocent*, and *safe*.”—*Hawkesworth*. “*Capacity* marks the abstract quality of being *able* to receive or hold.” These adjectives may be considered indefinite attributes.

Observations.

1. Adjectives often relate to nouns understood ; as, “The nine” [*muses*].—“Philip was one of the seven” [*deacons*].—*Acts* xxi., 8. “He came unto his own [*possessions*], and his own [*men*] received him not.”—*John* i., 11. “The Lord your God is God of gods, and Lord of lords, a great God, a mighty [*God*], and a terrible” [*God*].—*Deut.* x., 17.

2. In the construction of sentences, adjectives often relate *immediately* to pronouns ; as, “*All ye* are his brethren.”—*Matt.* “Whether of *them twain* did the will of his father ?”—*Id.*

3. When an adjective follows a finite verb, and is not followed by a noun, it generally relates to the *subject* of the verb ; as, “*I am glad* that the *door* is made *wide*.” Thus the adjective when an attribute generally follows the predicate verb.

4. When an adjective follows an infinitive or a participle, the noun or pronoun to which it relates, is sometimes before it, and sometimes after it, and often considerably remote ; as, “A real gentleman cannot but practice those virtues *which*, by an intimate knowledge of mankind, he has found to be *useful* to them.”

5. Adjectives preceded by the definite article, are often used, by ellipsis, as having the force of *nouns*. They designate those classes of objects which are characterized by the qualities they express ; and, in parsing, the noun may be supplied. They are most commonly of the plural number, and refer to *persons*, *places*, or *things*, understood ; as, “The *careless* [persons] and the *imprudent*, the *giddy* and the *fickle*, the *ungrateful* and the *interested* everywhere meet us.”

6. The adjective is generally placed immediately before its noun, but in the following instances it is placed after the noun to which it relates :—

1. When other words depend on the adjective ; as, “A mind *conscious of right*.”—“A wall *three feet thick*.”

2. When the quality results from the action of a verb ; as, “Virtue renders life *happy*.” (Indirect attribute.)

3. When the adjective would thus be more clearly distinctive ; as, “Goodness *infinite*.”—“Wisdom *unsearchable*.”

4. When a verb comes between the adjective and the noun ; as, “Truth stands *independent* of all external things.” (Direct attribute.)

7. In some cases, the adjective may *either precede or follow* the noun :—

1. In poetry ; as,

“Wilt thou to the *isles*
Atlantic, to the *rich Hesperian clime*,
 Fly in the train of Autumn ?”—*Akenside*.

2. In some technical expressions; as, "A notary public," or, "A public notary."
3. When an adverb precedes the adjective; as, "A Being infinitely wise," or, "An infinitely wise Being."
4. When several adjectives belong to the same noun; as, "A woman, modest, sensible, and virtuous," or, "A modest, sensible, and virtuous woman."
8. An emphatic adjective *may be placed first* in the sentence, though it belong after the verb; as, "*Weighty* is the anger of the righteous."—*Bible*.
9. By an ellipsis of the noun, an adjective with a preposition before it, is sometimes *equivalent to an adverb*; as, "*In particular*;" that is, *in a particular manner*; equivalent to "*particularly*." In parsing, supply the ellipsis. [See *Obs.* 1, under *Rule XX.*]

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number; as, *That sort, those sorts.*

II.—When the adjective is necessarily plural, or necessarily singular, the noun should be made so too; as, "*Twenty pounds*,"—not, "*Twenty pound*."—" *One session*,"—not, "*One sessions*."

OBS. 1.—In some peculiar phrases, this rule appears to be disregarded; as, "*Two hundred pennyworth* of bread is not sufficient."—*John vi.*, 7. "*Twenty sail* of vessels."—" *A hundred head* of cattle."

OBS. 2.—To denote a collective number, a singular adjective may precede a plural one; as, "*One hundred men*."—" *Every six weeks*."—" *One seven times*."—*Dan.* iii., 19.

OBS. 3.—To denote plurality, the adjective *many* may, in like manner, precede *an* or *a* with a *singular* noun; as,

"Full *many a flower* is born to blush unseen,
And waste *its* sweetness on the desert air."—*Gray*.

III.—The reciprocal expression, *one an other*, should not be applied to *two* objects, nor *each other*, or *one the other*, to *more* than *two*.

OBS.—Reciprocity between *two* is some act or relation of *each* or *one* to *the other*, an object definite, and not of *one* to *an other*, which is indefinite; but reciprocity among *three* or *more* is of *one*, *each*, or *every one*, not to *one other* solely, or *the other* definitely, but to *others*, a plurality, or to *an other*, taken indefinitely and implying this plurality.

IV.—The comparative degree can only be used in reference to *two objects*, or classes of objects ; the superlative compares one or more things with *all others* of the same class, whether few or many : as, “Edward is *taller* than James ; he is the *largest* of my scholars.”

V.—When the comparative degree is employed, the latter term of comparison should never *include* the former ; as, “*Iron* is more useful than *all the metals*.” It should be, “than *all the other metals*.”

VI.—When the superlative degree is employed, the latter term of comparison should never *exclude* the former ; as, “A fondness for show is, of all *other* follies, the most vain.” The word *other* should be expunged.

VII.—Comparative terminations, and adverbs of degree, should not be applied to adjectives that are not susceptible of comparison ; and all double comparatives and double superlatives should be avoided ; as, “*So universal* a complaint :” say “*So general*.”—“Some *less nobler* plunder :” say, “*less noble*.”—“The *most straitest* sect :” expunge *most*.

VIII.—When adjectives are connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, the shortest and simplest should in general be placed first ; as, “He is *older* and *more respectable* than his brother.”

IX.—An adjective and its noun may be taken as a compound term, to which other adjectives may be prefixed. The most distinguishing quality should be expressed next to the noun ; as, “A fine young man,”—not, “A young fine man.”

X.—In prose, the use of adjectives for adverbs is improper ; as, “He writes *elegant* ;”—say, “*elegantly*.”

OBS. 1.—In *poetry*, an adjective relating to the noun or pronoun, is sometimes elegantly used instead of an adverb qualifying the verb or participle ; as,

“To thee I bend the knee ; to thee my thoughts
Continual climb.”—*Thomson*.

OBS. 2.—In order to determine, in difficult cases, whether an adjective or an adverb is required, the learner should carefully attend to the definitions of these parts of speech, and consider whether, in the case in question, *quality* or *manner* is to be expressed : if the former, an

adjective is proper: if the latter, an adverb. The following examples will illustrate this point: "She looks *cold* ;—she looks *coldly* on him."—"I sat *silent* ;—I sat *silently* musing."—"Stand *firm* ;—maintain your cause *firmly*."

XI.—The pronoun *them* should never be used as an adjective in lieu of *those*: say, "I bought *those* books,"—not, "*them* books." This is a vulgar error.

XII.—When the pronominal adjectives, *this* and *that*, or *these* and *those*, are contrasted; *this* or *these* should represent the latter of the antecedent terms, and *that* or *those*, the former; as,

"And, reason raise o'er instinct as you can,
In *this* 'tis God directs, in *that* 'tis man."—*Pope*.

"Farewell my friends! farewell my foes!
My peace with *these*, my love with *those*!"—*Burns*.

XIII.—The pronominal adjectives *each*, *one*, *either*, and *neither*, are always in the third person singular; and, when they are the leading words in their clauses, they require verbs and pronouns, to agree with them accordingly; as, "*Each* of you is entitled to *his* share."—"Let no *one* deceive *himself*."

XIV.—The pronominal adjectives *either* and *neither* relate to two things only; when more are referred to, *any* and *none* should be used in stead of them: as, "*Any* of the three ;"—not, "*Either* of the three."—"None of the four ;"—not, "*Neither* of the four."

XV.—Participial adjectives retain the termination, but not the government, of participles; when, therefore, they are followed by the objective case, a preposition must be inserted to govern it; as, "The man who is most *sparing* of his words, is generally most *deserving* of attention."

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Those sort of people you will find to be troublesome.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the adjective *those* is in the plural number, and does not agree with its noun *sort*, which is singular. But, according to Note I. under Rule II., "Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number." Therefore, *those* should be *that*; thus, *That* sort of people you will find to be troublesome.

I.

Things of these sort are easily understood.
 Who broke that tongs?
 Where did I drop this scissors?
 Bring out that oats.
 Extinguish that embers.
 I disregard this minutiae.
 Those kind of injuries we need not fear.
 What was the height of those gallows which Haman
 erected?

II.

We rode about ten mile an hour.
 'Tis for a thousand pound.—*Couper*.
 How deep is the water? About six fathom.
 The lot is twenty-five foot wide.
 I have bought eight load of wood.

III.—IV.

Two negatives in English destroy one another.
 That the heathens tolerated each other, is allowed.
 David and Jonathan loved one an other tenderly.
 Words are derived from each other in various ways.
 Teachers like to see their pupils polite to each other.
 The Graces always hold the one the other by the hand.
 He chose the latter of these three.
 Trisyllables are often accented on the former syllable.
 Which are the two more remarkable isthmuses in the world?

V.—VI.

The Scriptures are more valuable than any writings.
 The Russian empire is more extensive than any government
 in the world.
 Israel loved Joseph more than all his children, because he
 was the son of his old age.—*Gen.* xxxvii., 3.
 Of all other ill habits idleness is the most incorrigible.
 Eve was the fairest of all her daughters.
 Hope is the most constant of all the other passions.

VII.

That opinion is too universal to be easily corrected.
 Virtue confers the supremest dignity upon man.
 How much more are ye better than the fowls!—*Luke xii.*
 Do not thou hasten above the Most Highest.
 This was the most unkindest cut of all.—*Shakspeare.*
 The waters are more sooner and harder frozen.
 A more healthier place cannot be found.
 The best and the most wisest men often meet with discouragements.

VIII.

He showed us a more agreeable and easier way.
 This was the most convincing and plainest argument.
 Some of the most moderate and wisest of the senators.
 This is an honorable and ancient fraternity.
 There vice shall meet an irrevocable and fatal doom.

IX.

He is a young industrious man.
 She has a new elegant house.
 The two first classes have read.
 The oldest two sons have removed to the westward.
 England had not seen such an other king.—*Goldsmith.*

X.

She reads well and writes neat.
 He was extreme prodigal.
 They went, conformable to their engagement.
 He speaks very fluent, and reasons justly.
 The deepest streams run the most silent.
 These appear to be finished the neatest.
 He was scarce gone when you arrived.
 I am exceeding sorry to hear of your misfortunes.
 The work was uncommon well executed.
 This is not such a large cargo as the last.
 Thou knowst what a good horse mine is.
 I cannot think so mean of him.
 He acted much wiser than the others,

XI.

I bought them books at a very low price.
 Go and tell them boys to be still.
 I have several copies : you are welcome to them two.
 Which of them three men is the most useful ?

XII.

Hope is as strong an incentive to action, as fear : this is the anticipation of good, that of evil.

The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy ; but we should not therefore account those happy, and these miserable.

Memory and forecast just returns engage,
 This pointing back to youth, that on to age.

XIII.

Let each of them be heard in their turn.

On the Lord's day every one of us Christians keep the Sabbath.

Are either of these men known ?

No : neither of them have any connections here.

XIV.

Did either of the company stop to assist you ?

Here are six ; but neither of them will answer.

XV.

Some crimes are thought deserving death.

Rudeness of speech is very unbecoming a gentleman.

To eat with unwashen hands, was disgusting a Jew.

Leave then thy joys, unsuited such an age,

To a fresh comer, and resign the stage.—*Dryden.*

Promiscuous.

William is brighter than any of the pupils.

Either of those four boys is trustworthy.

These kind of bears are hard to tame.

The house is about twenty foot wide.

These two sisters are very fond of one another.

The latter of those three pictures is the prettier, but neither of them pleases me.

Of all other ill habits that is the worst.

Let the three first pupils in the class rise.

Will you have a ripe luscious peach ?

I cannot carry them books now.

What a terrible bad cold you have !

Try to get well as quick as you can.

Parsing.

Parse all the adjectives in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE.—“This boy seems very diligent.”

This is a pronominal adjective, and relates to the noun *boy*, according to the rule—Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns.

Diligent is a common adjective, and relates to the noun *boy*, according to the rule, etc.

I am glad you have become skillful. Strive to be honest and true. The door is made wide. To be good is better than to be learned. To wrong the poor is very wicked. A word to the wise is sufficient. This is true, but that is false. The careless are rarely successful. The house was a hundred feet high. Virtue alone will render you happy. A Being infinitely good cannot be the author of evil. In general, the rule is applicable. Noble was the act, and great was the reward.

Rule III.—Adverbs.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs ; as, “Conscience, *very often* disregarded, *finally* becomes *wholly* inert.”

Exceptions.

1. The words *yes* and *yea*, and *no* and *nay*, usually called adverbs, are always independent, being the answers to questions, and equivalent to entire propositions.

2. The word *amen*, which is commonly called an adverb, is often used independently at the beginning or end of a declaration or prayer ; and is itself a prayer, meaning, *so let it be*.

Observations.

1. Many words usually employed as adverbs are often used as nouns; as, "The Son of God was not *yea* and *nay*, but in him was *yea*."—*Bible*. "For a great *while* to come."—*Id.* "On this *perhaps*, this *peradventure* infamous for lies."—*Young*. "From the extremest *upward* of thine head."—*Shak.* "Prate of my *whereabout*."—*Id.* "An eternal *now* does always last."—*Cowley*. "Discourse requires an animated *no*."—*Cowper*.

2. Adverbs sometimes relate to verbs *understood*; "The former has written correctly; but the latter, *elegantly*." "And, [*I say*] *truly*, if they had been mindful of that country from whence they came out, they might have had opportunity to have returned."—*Heb.* xi., 15.

3. To abbreviate expressions, and give them vivacity, verbs of self-motion (as *go*, *come*, *rise*, *get*, etc.) are sometimes suppressed, being suggested to the mind by an emphatic adverb;

"I'll *hence* to London on a serious matter."—*Shakspeare*.

"I'll *in*. I'll *in*. Follow your friend's counsel. I'll *in*."—*Id.*

"*Away* old man; give me thy hand; *away*."—*Id.*

4. An adverb is often used to modify a phrase used as an adjective or adverb; as, "He is *greatly* in fault."—"He swam *nearly* across the stream."

5. The word *even* is sometimes an adverb; but it may be placed before any word to give it emphasis; as, "*Even* I was condemned."

6. *Conjunctive adverbs* seem to relate to two verbs at the same time, and thus connect the two clauses; as, "And the rest will I set in order *when* I come."—1 *Cor.* xi. In this case the adverbial clause relates to *set* and the adverb *when*, to the verb *come*, in its own clause.

7. *No* is sometimes an adverb of *degree*; and as such it has this peculiarity, that it can relate only to comparatives; as, "*No* more."—"No better."—"No greater."—"No sooner." When this word is prefixed to a noun, it is clearly an *adjective*, corresponding to the Latin *nullus*; as, "*No* clouds, *no* vapors intervene."—*Dyer*.

8. By the customary (but faulty) omission of the negative before *but*, that conjunction has acquired the adverbial sense of *only*; and it may, when used with that signification, be called an *adverb*. Thus, the text, "He hath *not* grieved me *but* in part," [2 *Cor.* ii., 5,] might drop the negative, and still convey the same meaning; "He hath grieved me *but* in part."

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—Adverbs must be placed in that position which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable.

OBS.—For the placing of adverbs, no definite general rule can be given. Those which relate to adjectives, immediately precede them; and those which belong to compound verbs, are commonly placed after the first auxiliary.

II.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives; nor should they be employed, when *quality* is to be expressed, and not *manner*; as, “The *soonest* time.”—“Thine *often* infirmities.”—“It seems *strangely*.” In the last case, the adverb *strangely* is used for the adjective attribute *strange*.

III.—With a verb of motion, the adverbs *hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, are more proper than *here*, *there*, *where*; but usage sometimes sanctions the latter. To the adverbs *hence*, *thence*, and *whence* the preposition *from* should not be prefixed.

IV.—The adverb *no* should not be used with reference to a verb or a participle; as, “Will you do it, or *no*?” *No* should be *not*.

V.—A negation, in English, admits but one negative word; as, I could not wait any longer,”—not, “*no* longer.” Double negatives are vulgar.

OBS. 1.—The repetition of a negative word or clause, strengthens the negation; as, “No, no, no.” But two negatives in the same clause, destroy the negation, and render the meaning affirmative; as, “*Nor* did they *not* perceive their evil plight.”—*Milton*. That is, they *did* perceive it.

OBS. 2.—*Ever* and *never* are directly opposite in sense, and yet they are frequently confounded and misapplied even by respectable writers; as, “Seldom, or *never*, can we expect,” etc.—*Blair’s Lectures*, p. 305. “Seldom, or *ever*, did any one rise,” etc.—*Ibid.*, p. 272. Here *never* is right, and *ever* is wrong. But as the negative adverb applies only to *time*, *ever* is preferable to *never*, in *sentences* like the following: “Now let man reflect but *never* so little on himself.”—*Burlamaqui*. “Which will not hearken to the voice of charmers, charming *never* so wisely.”—*Ps.* lviii., 5. For the phrase *ever so* (which ought perhaps to be written as one word) is a very common expression, denoting *degree*, however great or small; as, “*ever so* little”—“*ever so* wisely.” And it seems to be this, and not time, that is intended in the last two examples.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—My cousin is soon expected to arrive.

FORMULE.—Not proper because the adverb *soon* is not in the proper place to express the meaning clearly.

But, according to Note I. under Rule III., “Adverbs must be placed in that position which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable.” The sentence will be improved by placing *soon* after *arrive*; thus, My cousin is expected to arrive soon.

I.

The work will be never completed.

We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.

It is impossible continually to be at work.

He impertinently behaved to his master.

The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.

Not only he found her busy, but pleased and happy even.

The man only discharged his duty.

II.

Give him a soon and decisive answer.

When a substantive is put absolutely.

Such expressions sound harshly.

Such events are of seldom occurrence.

Velvet feels very smoothly.

The wind blew keenly and coldly.

III.

From hence it appears that the statement is incorrect.

From thence arose the misunderstanding.

Do you know from whence it proceeds?

IV.

Know now, whether this be thy son's coat or no.

Whether he is in fault or no, I cannot tell.

I will ascertain whether it is so or no.

V.

I will not by no means entertain a spy.

Nobody never invented nor discovered nothing, in no way to be compared with this.

I did all I could; I cannot do no more.

Neither he nor no one else can do that.

Promiscuous.

Tell me whether this is true or no.
 Why do you not say nothing?
 He only came here to make trouble.
 Nothing can justify ever an untruth.
 He was not able to pay the debt but in part.
 The messenger went direct to the place.
 From whence did he set out?
 The two ladies were nearly dressed alike.
 He only read the book, not the notice of it.
 He read only the book; he did not tear it.

Parsing.

Parse all the adverbs in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE.—“The work was done very skillfully.”

Very is an adverb of degree, and relates to the adverb *skillfully*, according to the rule—Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, etc.

Skillfully is an adverb of manner, and relates to the verb *was done*, according to the rule, etc.

Are you feeling well to-day? Yes. Whither are you running so fast? Truly, if they had reflected long enough, they would not have acted so rashly. Down with the law that binds him thus. Never decide rashly. Obviously, he is greatly in fault. They started yesterday very early in the morning. I can go no farther. When I saw him, I went directly up to him. He has suffered only in a slight degree. John has read nearly through his book. Can you go no higher? No.

Rule IV.—Participles.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions; as, “Elizabeth’s tutor, at one time *paying* her a visit, found her *employed* in *reading* Plato.”—*Hume*.

Exceptions.

1. A participle sometimes relates to a preceding *phrase* or *sentence*, of which it forms no part; as,

“But *ever to do ill* our sole delight,
 As *being* the contrary to his high will.”—*Milton*.

2. With an infinitive denoting being or action in the abstract, a participle is sometimes also taken *abstractly* (that is, without reference to any particular noun, pronoun, or other subject); as, "To seem *compelled* is disagreeable."—"To keep always *praying* aloud is plainly impossible."

Observations.

1. The use of the participle in *ing* as the subject or object of a verb, though sanctioned to some extent by writers of reputation, seems to be an anomaly which should be avoided when possible. Thus, instead of, "He abhorred *being* in debt," say, "He abhorred to be in debt."

2. The word to which the participle relates is sometimes *understood*; as, "*Granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it." That is, "*I, granting* this to be true, *ask* what is to be inferred from it?"—"The very chin was, [*I say,*] modestly speaking, as long as my whole face."—*Addison*.

3. An imperfect or preperfect participle, preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, becomes a *verbal noun*; and, as such, it cannot govern an object after it. A word which may be the object of the *participle* in its proper construction, requires the preposition *of*, to connect it with the *verbal noun*; as, "*The worshipping of* idols,—Such *worshipping of* idols—or, *Their worshipping of* idols, was sinful." A participial phrase is, however, sometimes used, by good writers, to govern a noun or pronoun in the possessive case.

4. We sometimes find a participle and its adjuncts, forming a participial phrase, used as the subject or the object of a verb; as, "*Exciting* such disturbances is unlawful." Usually, the infinitive is to be preferred; as, "I intend *to do* it;" which is better than "I intend *doing* it."

5. When the use of the preposition produces ambiguity or harshness, the expression may be varied. Thus, the sentence, "He mentions *Newton's writing of* a commentary," is both ambiguous and awkward. If the preposition be omitted, the word *writing* will have a double construction, which is inadmissible. Some would say, "He mentions *Newton writing* a commentary." This is still worse; because it makes the leading word in sense the adjunct in construction. The meaning may be correctly expressed thus: "He mentions *that Newton wrote* a commentary." "By *his* studying the Scriptures, he became wise." Here *his* serves only to render the sentence incorrect.

6. We sometimes find a participle that takes the same case after as before it, converted into a verbal noun, and the latter word retained unchanged in connection with it; as, "I have some recollection of his *father's being a judge*."—"To prevent *its being* a dry *detail* of terms." In this case, the attribute is indefinite.

7. When the verbal noun is accompanied by adjuncts of the verb or participle, it makes an awkward construction, which it would be better to avoid; as, "The hypocrite's hope is like the *giving up* of the ghost."—"For the *more easily* reading large numbers." Say, "For reading large numbers the more easily."

8. After verbs signifying to *persevere* or to *desist*, the participle in *ing*, relating to the nominative, may be used in stead of the infinitive connected to the verb; as, "So when they continued *asking* him."—*John* viii.

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—Active participles have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived; the preposition *of*, therefore, should never be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it. Thus, in phrases like the following, *of* is improper: "Keeping *of* one day in seven,"—"By preaching *of* repentance,"—"They left beating *of* Paul."

II.—When a transitive participle is converted into a noun, *of* must be inserted to govern the object following.

III.—A participle should not be used where the infinitive mood, a verbal noun, a common substantive, or a phrase equivalent, will better express the meaning.

IV.—In the use of participles and of verbal nouns, the leading word in sense, should always be made the leading or governing word in the construction.

V.—Participles, in general, however construed, should have a clear reference to the proper subject of the being, action, or passion. The following sentence is therefore faulty: "By *giving way* to sin, trouble is encountered." This suggests that *trouble gives way to sin*. It should be, "By *giving way* to sin, *we* encounter trouble."

VI.—The preterit of irregular verbs should not be used for the perfect participle; as, "A certificate *wrote* on parchment"—for, "A certificate *written* on parchment."

VII.—Perfect participles being variously formed, care should be taken to express them agreeably to the best usage: thus, *earnt*, *snatcht*, *checkt*, *snapt*, *mixt*, *tost*, are erroneously written for *earned*, *snatched*, *checked*, *snapped*, *mixed*, *tossed*; and such forms as *holden*, *proven*, etc., are now superseded by *held*, *proved*, etc.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—In forming of his sentences he was very exact.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the preposition *of* is used after the participle *forming*, whose verb does not require it. But, according to Note I., under Rule IV., “Participles have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived; the preposition *of*, therefore, should not be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it.” Therefore, *of* should be omitted; thus, In forming his sentences, he was very exact.

I.

By observing of truth, you will command respect.

I could not, for my heart, forbear pitying of him.

I heard them discussing of this subject.

By consulting of the best authors, he became learned.

Here are rules, by observing of which, you may avoid error.

II.

Their consent was necessary for the raising any supplies.

Thus the saving a great nation devolved on a husbandman.

It is an overvaluing ourselves, to decide upon everything.

The teacher does not allow any calling ill names.

That burning the capitol was a wanton outrage.

May nothing hinder our receiving so great a good.

My admitting the fact will not affect the argument.

Cain's killing his brother originated in envy.

III.

Cæsar carried off the treasures which his opponent had neglected taking with him.—*Goldsmith*.

It is dangerous playing with edge tools.

I intend returning in a few days.

Suffering needlessly is never a duty.

Nor is it wise complaining.—*Cowper*.

I well remember telling you so.

Doing good is a Christian's vocation.—*H. More*.

Piety is constantly endeavoring to live to God. It is earnestly desiring to do his will, and not our own.—*Id.*

IV.

There is no harm in women knowing about these things.
 They did not give notice of the pupil leaving.
 The sun's darting his beams through my window awoke me.
 The maturity of the sago tree is known by the leaves being
 covered with a delicate white powder.

V.

Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen.
 Being conscious of guilt, death becomes terrible.
 By yielding to temptation, our peace is sacrificed.
 In loving our enemies, no man's blood is shed.
 By teaching the young, they are prepared for usefulness.

VI.

A nail well drove will support a great weight.
 See here a hundred sentences stole from my work.
 I found the water entirely froze, and the pitcher broke.
 Being forsook by my friends, I had no other resource.

VII.

Till by barbarian deluges o'erflown.
 Like the luster of diamonds sat in gold.
 A beam ethereal, sullied and absorpt.
 With powerless wings around them wrapt.
 Error learnt from preaching, is held as sacred truth.

Promiscuous.

He could not have wrote such a letter.
 By studying faithfully, knowledge is acquired.
 We saw the lady while crossing the street.
 The learning anything requires application.
 I do not remember speaking of the affair.
 By the exercising our faculties they are improved.
 The garment was without seam, being wove in one piece.
 What is the cause of that pupil being so deficient?
 Striving to excel is always commendable.
 Breaking windows is the sport of mischievous boys.
 He disliked being under an obligation.
 His being considered a scholar did not make him one.

Parsing.

Parse all the participles in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE.—"Thus repulsed, he lost all hope of attaining his object."

Repulsed is a perfect passive participle, and relates to *he*, according to the rule,—Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, etc.

Attaining is an imperfect active participle, and is governed by the preposition *of*, according to the rule, etc.

Knowledge, combined with true culture, makes a person esteemed and admired. Admitting the truth of this, what does it prove? The pupils continued whispering, after being reproved. Walking rapidly is good exercise. To keep on arguing against prejudice is a loss of time. Washington, having been appointed commander-in-chief, proceeded to Cambridge. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost. The ship having been wrecked, the letter did not reach him. He was too fond of being flattered. Despised and shunned by all, he went sorrowing to his grave.

Rule V.—Prepositions.

Prepositions show the relation of things; as, "He came *from* Rome *to* Paris."

Exceptions.

1. The preposition *to*, before an abstract infinitive, and at the head of a phrase which is made the subject of a verb, has no proper antecedent term of relation; as, "*To* learn to die is the great business of life."

2. The preposition *for*, when it introduces its object before an infinitive, and the whole phrase is made the subject of a verb, has properly no antecedent term of relation; as, "*For* us to learn to die is the great business of life."

Observations.

1. The preposition always introduces a phrase; and the relation which it expresses is that existing between the object of the preposition and the word to which the phrase relates. The latter is the *antecedent term*; and the former, the *subsequent term* of relation. When the phrase is independent, there is no antecedent term, unless one be understood; as, "To confess the truth, I was to blame."

2. When a preposition *begins* or *ends* a sentence or clause, the terms of relation are transposed; as, "To a studious *man*, action is a *relief*."—"Science they do not pretend *to*."

3. Both the terms of relation are usually expressed, though either of them may be *understood*; as, 1. *The former*—"All shall know me [*reck-*

oning] FROM the least to the greatest.”—*Heb. viii.* [I say] “IN a word, it would entirely defeat the purpose.”—*Blair.* 2. *The latter*—“Opinions and ceremonies [*which*] they would die FOR.”—*Locke.* “IN [*those*] who obtain defence, or who defend.”—*Pope.*

4. Prepositions are not to be supposed to have no antecedent term, merely because they stand at the head of a sentence which is made the subject of a verb; for the sentence itself often contains that term, as in the following example: “*In* what way mind acts upon matter, is unknown.” Here *in* shows the relation between *acts* and *way*; the sentence being equivalent to, “The way in which mind acts upon matter is unknown.”

5. In the familiar style, a preposition governing a relative or an interrogative pronoun, is often separated from its object, and connected with the other term of relation; as, “*Whom* did he speak *to*?” But it is more dignified, and in general more graceful, to place the preposition before the pronoun; as, “*To whom* did he speak?”

6. Two prepositions sometimes come together; as, “Lambeth is *over against* Westminster Abbey.”

“And *from before* the lustre of her face.”—*Thomson.*

“Blows mildew *from between* his shrivel’d lips.”—*Cowper.*

7. Two separate prepositions have sometimes a joint reference to the same noun; as, “He boasted *of*, and contended *for*, the privilege.” This construction is formal, and scarcely allowable, except in the law style. It is better to say, “He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it.”

8. The preposition *into* expresses a relation produced by motion or change; and *in*, the same relation, without reference to motion: hence “to walk *into* the garden,” and, “to walk *in* the garden,” are very different.

9. *Between* or *betwixt* is used in reference to two things or parties; *among* or *amidst*, in reference to a greater number, or to something by which another may be surrounded; as,

“Thou pendulum *betwixt* a smile and tear.”—*Byron.*

“The host *between* the mountain and the shore.”—*Id.*

“To meditate amongst decay, and stand

A ruin amidst ruins.”—*Id.*

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—Prepositions must be chosen and employed agreeably to the usage and idiom of the language, so as rightly to express the relations intended.

II.—An *ellipsis* or *omission* of prepositions is inelegant, except in those phrases in which long and general use has sanctioned it. In the following sentence, *of* is needed.

“———— I will not flatter you,
That all I see in you is *worthy love*.”—*Shak.*

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Her sobriety is no derogation to her understanding.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the relation between *derogation* and *understanding* is not correctly expressed by the preposition *to*. But, according to Note I. under Rule V., “Prepositions must be chosen and employed agreeably to the usage and idiom of the language, so as rightly to express the relations intended.” This relation would be better expressed by *from*; thus, Her sobriety is no derogation *from* her understanding.

I.

She finds a difficulty of fixing her mind.
This affair did not fall into his cognizance.
He was accused for betraying his trust.
There was no water, and he died for thirst.
I have no occasion of his services.
You may safely confide on him.
I entertain no prejudice to him.
You may rely in what I tell you.
Virtue and vice differ widely with each other.
This remark is founded in truth.
After many toils, we arrived to our journey's end.
I will tell you a story very different to that.
Their conduct is agreeable with their profession.
Excessive pleasures pass from satiety in disgust.
I turned into disgust from the spectacle.
They are gone in the meadow.
Let this be divided between the three. (*Obs. 9.*)
The shells were broken in pieces.
The deception has passed among every one.
They never quarrel among each other.
Amidst every difficulty, he persevered.
Let us go above stairs.

I was at London when this happened.

We were detained to home, and disappointed in our walk.

This originated from mistake.

I am disappointed of the work ; it is very inferior from what I expected.

II.

Be worthy me, as I am worthy you.—*Dryden*.

They cannot but be unworthy the care of others.

Thou shalt have no portion on this side the river.

Sestos and Abydos were exactly opposite each other.

Ovid was banished Rome by his patron Augustus.

Promiscuous.

He divided his property between his four sons. (*Obs. 9.*)

Whom was this message meant for? (*Obs. 5.*)

He plunged into, and swam across, the river. (*Obs. 7.*)

That remark is not worthy your notice.

He put a basket of apples in his wagon. (*Obs. 8.*)

The pupil was admonished for his many faults.

The Indian differs with the Caucasian in color.

He is unacquainted with, and hence cannot speak upon, the subject.

Parsing.

Parse all the prepositions in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE.—“Be on thy guard against flattery.”

On is a preposition, and shows the relation between *be* and *guard*, according to the rule,—Prepositions show the relations of things.

Against is a preposition, and shows the relation between *guard* and *flattery*, according to the rule, etc.

War is the law of violence ; peace, the law of love. At the bottom of the garden, ran a little rivulet. Overwhelmed with anguish, he hastened to the palace of his sovereign. For an old man to be reduced to poverty, is a great affliction. My friend was absent a whole year. Come out from among those impious men. They could not give him any consolation in his distress. It was, in truth, a dreadful calamity. How like a fawning hypocrite he looks!

II.—AGREEMENT.

Rule VI.—Nominatives.

A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case ; as,

“I know *thou* sayst it : says thy *life* the same ?”—*Young*.

Observations.

1. The subject, or nominative, is generally placed *before* the verb ; as, “*Peace dawned* upon his mind.”—“*What is written* in the law ?” But in the following nine cases, the subject is usually placed *after* the verb, or after the first auxiliary :—

1. When a question is asked without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case ; as, “*Shall mortals be* implacable ?”—“*What art thou doing ?*”

2. When the verb is in the imperative mood ; as, “*Go thou.*”

3. When an earnest wish or other strong feeling is expressed ; as, “*May she be happy !*”—“*How were we struck !*”—*Young*.

4. When a supposition is made without a conjunction ; as, “*Were it true*, it would not injure us.”

5. When *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*, precedes the verb ; as, “*This was his fear ; nor was his apprehension groundless.*”

6. When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it ; as, “*Here am I.*”—“*Narrow is the way.*”—“*Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have, give I thee.*”

7. When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatic ; as, “*Echo the mountains round.*”—*Thomson*.

8. When the verbs *say*, *think*, *reply*, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue ; as, “ ‘*Son of affliction,*’ *said Omar*, ‘*who art thou ?*’ ‘*My name,*’ *replied the stranger*, ‘*is Hassan.*’”—*Johnson*.

9. When the adverb *there* precedes the verb ; as, “*There lived a man.*”—“*In all worldly joys, there is a secret wound.*”

2. A noun or pronoun used, in a dependent clause, as the subject of a verb in the infinitive mood, must be in the objective case ; as, “*She desired him to leave the room.*” Here, *him to leave the room* is equivalent to, *that he would leave the room* ;—an object clause connected to the principal clause by the conjunction *that*.

3. The subject of the infinitive is sometimes governed by a preposition ; as, “*For a prince to be reduced by villainy to my distressful circumstances is calamity enough.*”

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Him that is studious will improve.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the objective pronoun *him* is made the subject of the verb *will improve*. But, according to Rule VI., “A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.” Therefore, *him* should be *he*; thus, *He* that is studious will improve.

Them that seek wisdom, will be wise.

She and me are of the same age.

You are two or three years older than us.

Are not John and thee cousins?

Thee must have been idle.

I can write as handsomely as thee.

There are but few better pupils than him.

Whom do you think was there?

Who broke this slate? Me.

Them that honor me, I will honor; and them that despise me, shall be lightly esteemed.

He whom in that instance was deceived, is a man of sound judgment.

You know as well as me what was done.

Parsing.

After correcting the above, parse every noun and pronoun in each of the sentences, in the manner indicated in previous examples.

Rule VII.—Apposition.

A noun or a personal pronoun used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case; as,

“But *he*, our gracious *Master*, kind as just,
Knowing our frame, remembers we are dust.”—*Barbauld*.

Observations.

1. Apposition is the use of additional words or appellations to explain a preceding noun or pronoun. The explanatory term, or expression, must have the same relation to the other words of the sentence as the

term explained. Thus, in the sentence, "It is good for us to be here," the phrase *to be here* is in apposition with the subject *it*; the meaning being, "It, to be here, is good for us." Hence, the phrase is, like *it*, the subject of the verb *is*.

2. The explanatory word is sometimes placed first, especially among the poets; as,

"From bright'ning fields of ether fair disclos'd
Child of the sun, refulgent *Summer* comes."—*Thomson*.

3. The pronouns of the *first* and *second* persons are often prefixed to nouns, merely to distinguish their person; as, "*I John* saw these things."—"This is the stone which was set at nought of *you builders*."—*Bible*. "His praise, *ye brooks*, attune."—*Thomson*.

4. When two or more nouns of the *possessive case* are put in apposition, the possessive termination added to one denotes the case of both or all; as, "His *brother Philip's* wife."—"John the *Baptist's* head."—"At my *friend Johnson's*, the bookseller." By a repetition of the possessive sign, a distinct governing noun is implied, and the apposition is destroyed.

5. In like manner, a noun without the possessive sign is sometimes put in apposition with a *pronoun of the possessive case*; as, "As an *author*, his '*Adventurer*' is his capital work."—*Murray*.

"Thus shall mankind *his* guardian care engage,
The promised *father* of the future age."—*Pope*.

6. When a noun or a pronoun *is repeated* for the sake of emphasis, the word which is repeated may properly be said to be in apposition with that which is first introduced; as, "They have forsaken *me*, the *Fountain* of living waters, and hewed them out *cisterns*, broken *cisterns*, that can hold no water."—*Jer. ii.*, 13.

7. A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a *sentence*; as, "He permitted me to consult his library—a *kindness* which I shall not forget."—*W. Allen*.

8. A *distributive term* in the singular number, is frequently construed in apposition with a comprehensive plural; as, "*They* reap vanity, *every one* with his neighbor."—*Bible*. "Go ye *every man* unto his city."—*Ibid*. And sometimes a *plural word* is emphatically put after a series of particulars comprehended under it; as, "Ambition, interest, honor, *all* concurred."—*Murray*. "Royalists, republicans, churchmen, sectaries, courtiers, patriots, *all parties*, concurred in the illusion."—*Hume*.

9. To express a reciprocal action or relation, the pronominal adjectives *each other* and *one another* are employed; as, "They love *each other*."—"They love *one another*." The words, separately considered, are

singular ; but, taken together, they imply plurality ; and they can be properly construed only after plurals, or singulars taken conjointly. *Each other* is usually applied to two objects ; and *one an other*, to more than two. The terms, though reciprocal, and closely united, are never in the same construction. If such expressions be analyzed, *each* and *one* will generally appear to be in the nominative case, and *other* in the objective ; as, “ They love *each other* ; i.e., *each* loves *the other*. *Each* is properly in apposition with *they*, and *other* is governed by the verb. The terms, however, admit of other constructions ; as, “ Be ye helpers *one of an other*.”—*Bible*. Here *one* is in apposition with *ye*, and *other* is governed by *of*. “ Ye are *one an other's* joy.”—*Ib.* Here *one* is in apposition with *ye*, and *other's* is in the possessive case, being governed by *joy*. “ Love will make you *one an other's* joy.” Here *one* is in the objective case, being in apposition with *you*, and *other's* is governed as before. The *Latin* terms *alius alium*, *alii alios*, etc., sufficiently confirm this doctrine.

10. The *common* and the *proper name* of an object are often associated, and put in apposition ; as, The river Thames,—The ship Albion,—The poet Cowper,—Lake Erie,—Cape May,—Mount Atlas. But the proper name of a *place*, when accompanied by the common name, is generally put in the objective case, and preceded by *of* ; as, The city *of* New York,—The land *of* Canaan.

11. The *several proper names* which distinguish an individual, are always in apposition, and should be taken together in parsing ; as, *William Pitt*.—*Marcus Tullius Cicero*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—I have received a letter from my cousin, she that was here last week.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the nominative pronoun *she* is used to explain the objective noun *cousin*. But, according to Rule VII., “ A noun or a personal pronoun used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case.” Therefore, *she* should be *her* ; thus, I have received a letter from my cousin, *her* that was here last week.

The book is a present from my brother Richard, he that keeps the bookstore.

I am going to see my friends in the country, they that we met at the ferry.

This dress was made by Catharine, the milliner, she that we saw at work.

Dennis, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a peony.

Resolve me, why the cottager and king,
Him whom sea-sever'd realms obey, and him
Who steals his whole dominion from the waste,
Repelling winter blasts with mud and straw,
Disquieted alike, draw sigh for sigh.

Parsing.

Parse all the nouns and pronouns in apposition in the above sentences.

Rule VIII.—Verb and Subject.

A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number: as, “The bird *flies*; “The birds *fly*.”

Observations.

1. Verbs in the *imperative mood* commonly agree with the pronoun *thou*, *ye*, or *you*, understood; as, “*Do* [thou] as thou list.”—*Shak.* “*Trust* God and *be doing*, and *leave* the rest with him.”

2. When a verb not finite, that is, in the infinitive mood, has a subject, the latter must be in the objective case; but the infinitive having no inflections, there is no agreement. (See *Obs.* 2, under Rule VI.)

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—The adjuncts of the nominative do not control its agreement with the verb; as, “Six months’ *interest was due*.” “The *propriety* of these rules is evident.”

II.—The infinitive mood, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes the subject to a verb: a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person singular; as, “*To lie* is base.”—“*To see the sun* is pleasant.”—“*That you have violated the law*, is evident.”

III.—When, by transposition, the subject is placed after a neuter or a passive verb, care should be taken to make the verb agree with the subject, and not with the attribute; “His pavilion were dark *waters* and thick *clouds*.”—“The wages of sin is *death*.”—“Who art *thou*?”

IV.—That form of the verb should be used which is best suited to the style employed ; as, “The clock *has* stricken.” Not *hath* stricken, except in the poetical or solemn style.

V.—In selecting the proper tense, the order and fitness of time should be carefully observed. Thus : instead of, “I *have* seen him *last week*,” say, “I *saw* him *last week* ;” instead of, “I *saw* him *this week*,” say, “I *have* seen him *this week* ;” and instead of, “I *hoped* you *would have come*,” say, “I *hoped* you *would come*.”

VI.—Propositions that are at all times equally true or false, should be expressed in the present tense ; as, “He seemed hardly to know that two and two *make* four,”—not *made*.

VII.—Every finite verb not in the imperative mood, should have a separate nominative expressed ; as, “*I came, I saw, I conquered* ;” except when the verb is repeated for the sake of emphasis, or connected to another in the same construction ; as, “They bud, blow, wither, fall, and die.”—*Watts*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—You was kindly received.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the passive verb *was received* is of the singular number, and does not agree with its nominative *you*, which is of the second person, plural. But, according to Rule VIII., “A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number.” Therefore, *was received* should be *were received* ; thus, You *were* kindly *received*.

We was disappointed.
 She dare not oppose it.
 His pulse are too quick.
 Circumstances alters cases.
 He need not trouble himself.
 Twenty-four pence is two shillings.
 On one side was beautiful meadows.
 He may pursue what studies he please.
 What have become of our cousins ?
 There was more impostors than one.
 What says his friends on this subject ?
 Thou knows the urgency of the case.

What avails good sentiments with a bad life?
 Has those books been sent to the school?
 There is many occasions for the exercise of patience.
 What sounds have each of the vowels?
 There were a great number of spectators.
 There are an abundance of treatises on this easy science.
 In this affair perseverance with dexterity were requisite.

I.

The derivation of these words are uncertain.
 Four years' interest were demanded.
 One added to nineteen make twenty.
 The increase of orphans render the addition necessary.
 The road to virtue and happiness, are open to all.
 The ship, with all her crew, were lost.
 A round of vain and foolish pursuits, delight some folks.

II.

To obtain the praise of men were their only object.
 To steal and then deny it are a double sin.
 To copy and claim the writings of others, are plagiarism.
 To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all
 men.
 That it is our duty to promote peace and harmony among
 men, admit of no dispute.

III.

The reproofs of instruction is the way of life.
 A diphthong are two vowels joined in one syllable.
 So great an affliction to him was his wicked sons.
 What is the latitude and longitude of that island?
 He churlishly said to me, "Who is you?"

IV.

That boy writeth very elegantly.
 Doth not your cousin intend to visit you?
 The Lord has prepared his throne in the heavens.
 Dost thou think it will rain to-day?

Praise waits for thee, O God, in Sion.
 My brother hath torn my book.
 Thou stoodest in my way, and hinderedst me.
 So then it is not of him that wills, nor of him that runs, but
 of God that shows mercy.

V.

The work has been finished last week.
 He was out of employment this fortnight.
 This mode of expression has been formerly in use.
 I should be much obliged to him if he will attend to it.
 I will pay the vows which my lips have uttered when I was in
 trouble.
 I thought, by the accent, that he had been speaking to his
 child.
 And he that was dead sat up and began to speak.
 Thou hast borne, and hast patience, and for my name's sake
 hast labored, and hast not fainted.—*Rev. ii., 3.*
 Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life.
 At the end of this quarter, I shall be at school two years.
 We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.
 We expected that he would have arrived last night.
 Our friends intended to have met us.
 We hoped to have seen you.
 He would not have been allowed to have entered.

VI.

The doctor affirmed that fever always produced thirst.
 The ancients asserted that virtue was its own reward.
 Columbus knew that the earth was round.

VII.

Am sorry to hear of thy loss, but hope it may be retrieved.
 The physician speaks favorably of the case; is inclined to
 think the patient will get well.
 Should be happy to see you soon.
 On further information, find my loss to be inconsiderable.
 "Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,
 And never, never be to Heaven resigned?"—*Pope.*

Promiscuous.

- 7 Some people is always busy and yet does very little.
 - 7 Sufficient data was not given to solve the problem.
 - 7 A judicious selection of studies afford much aid.
- Then thou spoke in vision to thy Holy One.
 He dare not do as he threatens.
 The man don't know what he wants.
 Sobriety with humility lead to honor.

New York, May 3d, 1882.

Dear Sir, Have just received your kind favor of this morning, and cannot forbear to express my gratitude to you. On further information, find I have not lost so much as at first supposed; and believe I shall still be able to meet all my engagements. Should, however, be happy to see you. Accept, dear sir, my most cordial thanks.

C. D.

Parsing.

Parse the subjects and each of the predicate verbs in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE.—“I have said to corruption, Thou art my father.”

I is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, common in gender, and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *have said*, according to the rule, —A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

Have said is a verb, irregular in form, the principal parts being, *say, said, saying, said*; it is active transitive in signification, its object being the clause, *Thou art my father*. It is found in the indicative mood and perfect tense, and agrees with its subject *I* in the first person, singular number; according to the rule, A finite verb must agree with its subject or nominative, in person and number.

Thou is a personal pronoun, of the second person, singular number, and neuter gender (referring to *corruption*), and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *art*; according to the rule, etc.

Art is an irregular neuter verb, the principal parts being *be, was, being, been*; it is found in the indicative mood and present tense, and agrees with its subject *thou* in the second person, singular number; according to the rule, etc.

Did he say I could go? I wish that I were sure of his sincerity. Tell me how long you have been there. What hast thou done? To speak well is a valuable accomplishment. That you have spoken truly is not doubted. Canst thou minister to a mind diseased? Unseen behind them sank the sun. Never decide rashly, or you may repent bitterly. Pluck one thread, and the web ye mar. I shall have departed, ere you return.

Rule IX.—Collective Nominative.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number; but when it conveys the idea of unity, the verb must be singular; as, "*My people do not consider.*"—"His *army was defeated.*"—"His *armies were defeated.*"

OBS.—Whether the idea conveyed is that of plurality or unity, depends upon the meaning of the verb, that is, the nature of the assertion. If it refers to the individuals separately, plurality is conveyed, because there are more than one; if to the whole collectively, unity is expressed, because there is but one body referred to. Thus, in the above examples, the *people consider* as individuals, not as a whole, to consider being an individual or personal act; but, in the second example, the *army* as a whole was defeated, not the individuals composing it.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—The people rejoices in that which should cause SORROW.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *rejoices* is of the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its nominative *people*, which is a collective noun, conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule IX., "When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number." Therefore, *rejoices* should be *rejoice*; thus, The people *rejoice* in that which should cause sorrow.

The nobility was assured that he would not interpose.

Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound.

The majority was disposed to adopt the measure.

The committee has voted upon the report.

The peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle class wears wooden shoes.

The church have no power to inflict such punishments.

The fleet were almost destroyed in the action.

The regiment consist of a thousand men.

The council have established several salutary regulations.

No society are responsible for the conduct of its members.

A large flock of birds were in sight.

The public is informed that a meeting will be held.

A group of children was growing up about him.

The jury have been formed, but has not agreed.

The happy pair has received the congratulations of their friends.

Parsing.

Parse each collective noun and each verb in the preceding exercise.

Rule X.—Two or More Nominatives.

When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number ; as, “Judges *and* senates *have been bought* for gold.”

Exceptions.

1. When two or more nominatives connected by *and*, serve merely to describe one person or thing, or when they are taken collectively, they do not require a plural verb ; as, “This *philosopher and poet was banished* from his country.”—“*Toll, tribute, and custom, was paid* unto them.”—*Ezra* iv., 20.

“Whose icy *current and compulsive course*
Ne’er *feels* retiring ebb, but *keeps* due on.”—*Shakspeare*.

2. When two nominatives connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished, they belong to different propositions, and (if singular) do not require a plural verb ; as, “*Ambition, and not the safety* of the state, *was concerned*.”—*Goldsmith*.

“*Ay, and no too, was* no good divinity.”—*Shakspeare*.
“*Love, and love only, is* the loan for love.”—*Young*.

3. When two or more nominatives connected by *and* are preceded by the adjective *each, every, or no* ; they are taken separately, and do not require a plural verb ; as, “When *no part* of their substance, and *no one* of their properties, *is* the same.”—*Butler*. “Every limb and feature *appears with its* respective grace.”—*Steele*.

4. When the verb separates its nominatives, it agrees with that which precedes it, and is understood to the rest ; as,

“—————Forth in the pleasing spring,
Thy *beauty walks, thy tenderness, and love*.”—*Thomson*.

Observations.

1. The conjunction is sometimes *understood* ; as,
“Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed.”—*Beattie*.

2. When the nominatives are of *different persons*, the verb agrees with the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third ; for *thou* and *I* (or *he*, *thou*, and *I*) are equivalent to *we* ; and *thou* and *he* are equivalent to *you* ; as, “Why speakest thou any more of thy matters ? I have said, *thou and Ziba divide the land.*”—2 *Sam.* xix. i. e., “*divide ye the land.*”

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—When two subjects or antecedents are connected, one of which is taken affirmatively, and the other negatively, they belong to different propositions ; and the verb or pronoun must agree with the affirmative subject, and be understood to the other ; as, “Diligent *industry*, and not mean savings, *produces* honorable competence.”

II.—When two subjects or antecedents are connected by *as well as*, *but*, or *save*, they belong to different propositions ; and, (unless one of them is preceded by the adverb *not*,) the verb and pronoun must agree with the former and be understood to the latter ; as, “*Veracity*, as well as justice, *is* to be our rule of life.”—*Butler*. “*Nothing but* wailings *was heard*.”

III.—When two or more subjects or antecedents are preceded by the adjective *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and require a verb and pronoun in the singular number ; as,

“And every sense, and every heart *is* joy.”—*Thomson*.

“Each beast, each insect, happy in *its* own.”—*Pope*.

IV.—Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *and*, require a plural verb ; as, *To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world, and to be wise in the sight of our Creator*, are three things so very different, as rarely to coincide.”—*Blair*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Industry and frugality leads to wealth.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *leads* is in the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, *industry* and *frugality*, which are connected by *and*, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule X., “When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number.” Therefore *leads* should be *lead* ; thus, *Industry and frugality lead to wealth.*

Temperance and exercise preserves health.

Time and tide waits for no man.

My love and affection toward thee remains unaltered.

Wealth, honor, and happiness, forsakes the indolent.

My flesh and my heart faileth.

In all his works, there is sprightliness and vigor.

Elizabeth's meekness and humility was extraordinary.

In unity consists the security and welfare of every society.

High pleasures and luxurious living begets satiety.

Much does human pride and folly require correction.

Our conversation and intercourse with the world is, in several respects, an education for vice.

Occasional release from toil, and indulgence of ease, is what nature demands, and virtue allows.

I.

Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem.

Prudence, and not pomp, are the basis of his fame.

Not fear but labor have overcome him.

The decency, and not the abstinence, make the difference.

Not her beauty but her talents attracts attention.

Her talents, not her beauty, attracts attention.

Study, not vain pleasures, engage his mind.

II.

His constitution, as well as his fortune, require care.

Their religion, as well as their manners, were ridiculed.

Every one, but thou, hadst been legally discharged.

The buyer, as well as the seller, are held liable.

All songsters, save the hooting owl, was mute.

None, but thou, O mighty prince! canst avert the blow.

Nothing, but frivolous amusements, please the indolent.

Cæsar, as well as Cicero, were admired for their eloquence.

III.

Each day, and each hour, bring its portion of duty.

Every house, and even every cottage, were plundered.

Every thought, every word, and every action, are brought into judgment.

The time has come, when no oppressor, and no unjust man,
are able to be screened from punishment.

No bandit fierce, no tyrant mad with pride,
No cavern'd hermit, rest self-satisfied.

IV.

To profess and to possess is very different.

To do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly has been en-
joined upon all mankind.

To cultivate the mind and to purify the heart was the object
of her endeavors.

Promiscuous.

No wife, no mother, no child were there to soothe his dying
hours.

Virtue, and virtue alone, are able to satisfy the heart. (*Excep-
tion 2.*)

There are beauty of thought and elegance of expression in all
his poems. (*Exception 1.*)

The long and short of the matter are simply this.

James, and also his brother, have left school.

Every herb, every shrub, and every tree are beginning to bud.

That noted poet and scholar have passed from earth. (*Ex-
ception 1.*)

Not a loud voice, but strong proofs, brings conviction.

The saint, the father, and the husband pray. (*Exception 1.*)

The ebb and flow of the tides are now understood.

Parsing.

Parse each verb in the preceding exercise.

Rule XI.—Singular Nominatives.

When a verb has two or more *singular* nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number; as, "Fear *or* jealousy *affects* him."

Observations.

1. When the latter nominative is parenthetical, the verb agrees with the former only; as, "One example, or ten, *says* nothing against the universal opinion."—*Leigh Hunt*.

2. When the latter of the two nouns connected is used to explain the former, the principal subject alone controls the verb; as, "The Mexican figures, or picture-writing, represent things, not words."

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—When a verb has nominatives of different persons or numbers, connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with that which is placed next to it, and be understood to the rest, in the person and number required; as, "Neither he nor his brothers *were* there."—"Neither you nor I *am* concerned."

II.—But when the nominatives require different forms of the verb, it is in general more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connection with each of them; as, "Either thou *art* to blame, or I *am*."—"Neither *were* their numbers, nor *was* their destination known."

III.—The speaker should generally mention himself last; as, "Thou or I must go."—"He then addressed his discourse to my father and *me*." But in confessing a fault he may assume the first place; as, "*I* and Robert did it."

IV.—Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb; as, "*That a drunkard should be poor, or that a fop should be ignorant*, is not strange."

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *have caused* is of the plural number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, *ignorance* and *negligence*, which are connected by *or*. But, according to Rule XI., "When a verb has two or more singular nominatives, connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, *have caused* should be *has caused*; thus, Ignorance or negligence *has caused* this mistake.

Neither imprudence, credulity, nor vanity, have ever been imputed to him.

What the heart or the imagination dictate flows readily.

Neither authority nor analogy support such an opinion.

Either ability or inclination were wanting.

Redundant grass or heath afford abundance to their cattle.

The returns of kindness are sweet ; and there are neither honor, nor virtue, nor utility in repelling them.

The sense or drift of a proposition, often depend upon a single letter.

I.

Neither he nor you was there.

Either the boys or I were in fault.

Neither he nor I intends to be present.

Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved.

Whether one person or more was concerned in the business does not yet appear.

II.

Are they expected or I to be there ?

Neither he, nor am I, capable of it.

Either he has been imprudent, or his associates vindictive.

Neither were their riches, nor their influence great.

III.

I and my father were riding out.

The premiums were given to me and George.

I and Jane are invited.

They ought to invite me and my sister.

We dreamed a dream in one night, I and he.

IV.

To practice tale-bearing, or even to countenance it, are great injustice.

To reveal secrets, or to betray one's friends, are contemptible perfidy.

Promiscuous.

Ignorance or negligence have caused the mistake.

Neither the man nor his sons has been here.

Either he or I are mistaken.

Neither thou nor I art to blame.

To have brilliant talents, or to amass great riches, render most persons very proud.

Neither I nor my father are able to be present.

Vanity, ambition, or sensuality lead many to ruin.

To read or to write were equally difficult to her.

Neither the captain nor the passengers was saved.

Parsing.

Parse each of the verbs in the preceding exercise.

Rule XII.—Verbs Connected.

When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed ; as, “He himself *held* the plough, *sowed* the grain, and *attended* the reapers.”—“She *was* proud, but she *is* now humble.”

Exception.

Verbs differing in mood, tense, or form, may sometimes agree with the same nominative, especially if the simplest verbs be placed first ; as,

“What nothing earthly *gives* or *can destroy*.”—*Pope*.

“Some *are*, and *must be*, greater than the rest.”—*Id.*

Observation.

Those parts which are common to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest ; as, “Every sincere endeavor to amend shall be assisted, [*shall be*] accepted, and [*shall be*] rewarded.”—“Honorably do the best you can” [*do*].—“He thought as I did” [*think*].—“You have seen it, but I have not” [*seen it*].—“If you go, I will” [*go*].

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—The preterit should not be employed to form the compound tenses, nor should the perfect participle be used for the preterit. Thus say, “To have *gone*,” — not, “To have *went* ;” and, “I *did* it,” — not, “I *done* it.”

II.—Care should be taken to give every verb its appropriate form and signification. Thus say, “He *lay* by the fire,”—not, “He *laid* by the fire;”—“He *had entered* into the connection,”—not, “He *was entered* into the connection;”—“I *would* rather *stay*,”—not, “I *had* rather *stay*.”

OBS.—Several verbs which resemble each other in form, are frequently confounded: as, to *flee*, to *fly*; to *lay*, to *lie*; to *sit*, to *set*; to *fall*, to *fell*; to *rend*, to *rent*; to *ride*, to *rid*, etc. Some others are often misapplied; as, *learn* for *teach*. There are also erroneous forms of some of the compound tenses; as, “We *will be convinced*,” for, “We *shall be convinced*.”—“If I *had have seen* him,” for, “If I *had seen* him.” All such errors are to be corrected by the foregoing note.

False Syntax.

OBS.—Errors under this rule may generally be corrected in *three* ways: 1. By changing the first verb, to agree with the second; 2. By changing the second verb, to agree with the first; 3. By inserting the nominative.

EXAMPLE.—They would neither go in themselves, nor suffered others to enter.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the two verbs *would go* and *suffered*, which are connected by separate nominatives, do not agree in mood. But, according to Rule XII., —“When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed.” The sentence is best corrected by changing *suffered* to *would suffer* (*would* understood); thus, They *would* neither go in themselves, nor *suffer* others to enter.

He will fail, and therefore should not undertake it.

Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray?

Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him?

If he understands the business, and attend to it, wherein is he deficient?

The day is approaching, and hastens upon us, in which we must give an account of our stewardship.

If thou dost not turn unto the Lord, but forget him who remembered thee in thy distress, great will be thy condemnation.

There are a few who have kept their integrity to the Lord,
and prefer his truth to all other enjoyments.

This report was current yesterday, and agrees with what we
heard before.

Virtue is generally praised, and would be generally practiced
also, if men were wise.

I.

He would have went with us, if we had invited him.

They have chose the part of honor and virtue.

He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do.

Somebody has broke my slate.

I seen him when he done it.

II.

He was entered into the conspiracy.

The Southern planters grow cotton and rice.

The report is predicated on truth.

I entered the room and set down.

Go and lay down, my son.

With such books, it will always be difficult to learn children
to read.

Rule XIII.—Subject and Attribute.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case *after* as *before* them, when both words refer to the same thing; as, "*He* returned a friend, who came a foe."—*Pope*. "*The child* was named John."—"It could not be *he*."

Observations.

1. This rule, as one of agreement, may be more simply stated :—The attribute agrees in case with the subject.

2. The neuter verb *be*, that connects the subject and the attribute, is called the *copula*, because it couples, or joins together, these two parts of the sentence. In the case of other verbs, the copula may be supplied by changing the form: as, "*The child sleeps*;" equivalent to, "*The child is sleeping*."

3. The verb *to be*, in most cases, only affirms, or indicates otherwise, the connection existing between the subject and the attribute. When the latter is a noun, it may express—1. *Class*; as, “Cain was a *murderer*.” 2. *Identity*; as, “Cain was *the* murderer of Abel.” 3. *Name*; as, “The child was called *John*.” When *mere* existence is predicated, the verb *be* comprehends both the predicate and the attribute.

4. Class, identity, name, or quality may be attributed to the subject in various ways:

1. By affirming directly a connection between it and the subject, as in the preceding examples.
2. By affirming it to belong to the subject, in connection with a particular act or state of being; as, “She *looked* a goddess, and she *walked* a queen.”—“The sun *stood* still.”
3. By affirming a connection, as the result of a change; as, “He *has become* a scholar.”
4. By affirming a connection, as the result of a process; as, “He *was elected* President.”—“The twig *has grown* a tree.”

5. The attribute is often used *indefinitely*, that is, without reference to any particular subject; as, “To be *good* is to be *happy*.”—“To be a *poet* requires genius.” In analyzing, this may be called the *indefinite attribute*.

6. An attribute is sometimes *indirectly* affirmed of, or otherwise connected with, the *object* of a verb; as, “They elected him *president*.”—“Vice has left him *without friends*” (i. e., *friendless*). This is to be considered as a modification of the predicate, and may be properly called the *indirect attribute*.

7. The conjunction *as* is often employed to express the connection between the attribute and the subject or object to which it refers; as, “She was known *as Curiosity*.”—“They engaged her *as a governess*.”

8. In interrogative sentences, the terms are usually transposed, or both are placed after the verb; as,

“Whence, and *what art thou*, execrable shape?”—*Milton*.

“Art *thou that traitor angel*? Art *thou he*?”—*Idem*.

And in a declarative sentence, there may be a rhetorical or poetical transposition of the terms; as, “I was eyes to the blind, and *feet was I* to the lame.”—*Job*, xxix.

“Far other *scene is Thrasymentè* now.”—*Byron*.

9. In some peculiar constructions, both words naturally come before the verb; as, “I know not *who she* is.”—“Inquire thou whose *son the stripling* is.”—1 *Sam.*, xvii. “Man would not be the creature *which he* now is.”—*Blair*. “I could not guess *who it* should be.”—*Addison*.

And they are sometimes placed in this manner by *hyperbaton*, or transposition ; as, “ Yet *He it* is.”—*Young*. “ No contemptible *orator he* was.”—*Blair*.

10. When the attribute is used with infinitives or participles, care must be taken to refer it to its proper subject, so as to determine its case by agreement. Sometimes the attribute, in such constructions, is indirect or indefinite, and sometimes it agrees with a preceding objective, which is the subject of the infinitive. Examples: “ *Who* then can bear the thought of being an *outcast* from his presence ? ”—*Addison*. “ *I* cannot help being so passionate an *admirer* as I am.”—*Steele*. “ To affect to be a *lord* in one’s closet, would be a romantic *madness*.” Here *lord* is indefinite.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—We did not know that it was him.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *him*, which belongs after the neuter verb *was*, is in the objective case, and does not agree with the pronoun *it*, which belongs before it as the nominative ; both words referring to the same thing. But, according to Rule XIII., “ Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing.” Therefore, *him* should be *he* ; thus, We did not know that it was *he*.

We thought it was thee.

I would act the same part, if I were him.

It could not have been her.

It is not me, that he is angry with.

They believed it to be I.

It was thought to be him.

If it had been her, she would have told us.

We know it to be they.

Whom do you think it is ?

Who do you suppose it to be ?

We did not know whom they were.

‘Thou art him whom they described.

Impossible ! it can’t be me.

Whom did he think you were ?

Whom say ye that I am ?

Art thou him whom they say thou art ?

If I had known it to be she, I should have spoken to her in a very different manner.

Parsing.

Parse each of the attributes in the above sentences, and in the following.

EXAMPLE 1.—“They said it was he.”

He is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the nominative case, agreeing with the subject *it*; according to the rule,—Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, etc.

EXAMPLE 2.—“Whom do they think him to be?”

Whom is an interrogative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the objective case, agreeing with *him*; according to the rule, etc.; the grammatical order, when transposed, being, They think *him* to be *whom*, equivalent to, They think that *he* is *who*; or, in the proper order, *Who* do they think that he is?

A region of repose it seems. The southwest wind blew fresh and fair. Make not thyself the judge of any man. He prized what others looked upon as trifles. He was fond of being the champion of innocence. To be an upright man is better than to be a millionaire. To affect to be a scholar is to prove yourself a pedant. For a man to be a true patriot, he must be willing to die for his country. It is not I that he is provoked at.

Rule XIV.—Pronoun and Antecedent.

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender; as, “*I, who* am your friend, will aid you.”

Exceptions.

1. When a pronoun stands for some person or thing *indefinite* or *unknown* to the speaker, this rule is not strictly applicable; because the person, number, and gender, are rather assumed than regulated by an antecedent; as, “I do not care *who* knows it.”—*Steele*. “*Who* touched me? Tell me *who* it was.”

2. The neuter pronoun *it* may be applied to a young child, or to other creatures masculine or feminine by nature, when they are not obviously distinguishable with regard to sex; as, “Which is the real friend to the *child*, the person who gives *it* the sweetmeats, or the person who, considering only *its* health, resists *its* importunities?”—*Opie*. “He loads the *animal*, he is showing me, with so many trappings and collars, that I cannot distinctly view *it*.”—*Murray*. “The *nightingale* sings most sweetly when *it* sings in the night.”—*Burke*.

3. The pronoun *it* is often used without a definite reference to any particular person or thing ; as, “ Whether she grapple *it* with the pride of philosophy.”—*Chalmers*. “ Come, and trip *it* as you go.”—*Milton*.

4. A singular antecedent with the adjective *many*, sometimes admits a plural pronoun, but never in the same clause ; as,

“ In Hawick twinkled *many a light*,
Behind him soon *they* set in night.”—*Scott*.

5. When a plural pronoun is put by *enallage* for the singular, it does not agree with its noun in number, because it still requires a plural verb ; as, “ *We* [Lindley Murray] *have followed* those authors.”—*Murray*. “ *We shall close our* remarks on this subject.”—*Id.* “ My lord, *you know* I love *you*.”—*Shakspeare*.

Observations.

1. While every pronoun must represent some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, it is only the relative pronoun that necessarily has an *antecedent* (word *going before*). The pronoun must always agree with the noun or pronoun which it represents, whether it be an antecedent or not. The antecedent of a relative pronoun is always in the same sentence ; but it is in the principal clause, while the relative is in the dependent clause.

2. The pronoun *we* is used by the speaker to represent himself and others, and is therefore plural. But it is sometimes used, by a sort of fiction, instead of the singular, to intimate that the speaker is not alone in his opinions. Monarchs sometimes join it to a singular noun ; as, “ *We* Alexander, Autocrat of all the Russias.” They also employ the compound *ourselves*, which is not used by other people.

3. When a pronoun represents the name of an inanimate object *personified*, it agrees with its antecedent in the figurative, and not in the literal sense ; [See the figure *Syllepsis*, in PART IV.] as,

“ *Penance* dreams *her* life away.”—*Rogers*.
“ *Grim Darkness* furls *his* leaden shroud.”—*Id.*

4. When the antecedent is applied *metaphorically*, the pronoun agrees with it in its literal, and not in its figurative sense ; as, “ Pitt was the *pillar* which upheld the state.”—“ The *monarch* of mountains rears *his* snowy head.” [See *Figures*, in PART IV.]

5. When the antecedent is put by *metonymy* for a noun of different properties, the pronoun sometimes agrees with it in the figurative, and sometimes in the literal sense ; as, “ And *heaven* beholds *its* image in his breast.”—*Pope*.

“ The wolf, who [that] from the nightly fold,
Fierce drags the bleating *prey*, ne’er drunk *her* milk,
Nor wore *her* warming fleece.”—*Thomson*.

6. When the antecedent is put by *synecdoche* for more or less than it literally signifies, the pronoun agrees with it in the figurative, and not in the literal sense ; as,

“A dauntless *soul* erect, *who* smiled on death.”—*Thomson*.

7. Pronouns usually *follow* the words which they represent ; but this order is sometimes reversed ; as, “*Whom* the cap fits, let *him* put it on.” —“Hark ! *they* whisper ; *angels* say,” etc.

8. A pronoun sometimes represents a *phrase* or *sentence* ; and in this case, the pronoun is always in the third person singular neuter ; as, “*She is very handsome* ; and she has the misfortune to know *it*.” “Yet men can go on to vilify or disregard Christianity ; *which* is to talk and act as if they had a demonstration of its falsehood.”—*Bp. Butler*.

9. After the pronoun *it*, used indefinitely, and followed by a pronoun of any person, number, or gender, as the attribute, the relative usually is made to agree with the latter instead of the former ; as, “*It* is not *I* *that* have done it.” This construction is anomalous.

10. The pronoun *it* is often used to represent an explanatory phrase or clause coming after the verb ; as, “*It* is impossible *to please every one*.”—“*It* was requisite *that the papers should be sent*.”

11. In familiar language, the relative in the *objective* case is frequently understood ; as, “Here is the letter [*which*] I received.” The omission of the relative in the *nominative* case, is inelegant ; as, “This is the worst thing [*that*] could happen.” The latter ellipsis sometimes occurs in poetry ; as, “In this ’tis God directs, in that ’tis man.”—*Pope*.

12. The *antecedent* is sometimes suppressed, especially in poetry ; as, “How shall I curse [*him* or *them*] whom God hath not cursed ?”—*Numb.*, xxiii.

[*He*] “Who lives to nature, rarely can be poor ;

[*He*] Who lives to fancy, never can be rich.”—*Young*.

13. *What* is sometimes used *adverbially* ; as, “Though I forbear, *what* am I eased ?”—*Job*. That is, *how much* ? or *wherein* ? “The enemy having his country wasted, *what* by himself and *what* by the soldiers, findeth succor in no place.”—*Spenser*. Here *what* means *partly*—“wasted *partly* by himself and *partly* by the soldiers.”

14. *What* is sometimes used as a mere *interjection* ; as,

“*What* ! this a sleeve ? ’Tis like a demi-canon.”—*Shakspeare*.

“*What* ! can you lull the winged winds asleep ?”—*Campbell*.

15. *As* frequently has the force of a relative pronoun ; as, “Avoid such *as* are vicious.”—“But to as many *as* received him,” etc.—“He then read the conditions *as follow*.” But when a clause or a sentence is

the antecedent, it is better to consider *as* a conjunction, and to supply the pronoun *it*; as, "He is angry, as [it] appears by this letter."

16. *But* sometimes seems to have the force of a relative and a negative; as, "Who is there *but* would pity them?" Here *but* is equivalent to *that not*.

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—A pronoun should not be introduced in connection with words that belong more properly to the antecedent, or to an other pronoun; as,

"My banks *they* are furnished with bees."—*Shenstone*.

OBS.—This is only an example of *pleonasm*, which is allowable and frequent in animated discourse, but inelegant in any other. [See *Pleonasm*, in PART IV.]

II.—A change of number in the second person is inelegant and improper; as, "*You* wept, and I for *thee*."

OBS.—Poets have sometimes adopted this *solecism*, to avoid the harshness of the verb in the second person singular; as,

"As, in that loved Athenian bower,
You learn'd an all commanding power,
Thy mimic soul, O nymph endear'd!
 Can well recall what then it heard."—*Collins*.

III.—The relative *who* is applied only to persons, and to animals personified; and *which*, to brute animals and inanimate things: as, "The *judge who* presided;"—"The old *crab who* advised the young one;"—"The *horse which* ran;"—"The *book which* was given me."

OBS.—*Which*, as well as *who*, was formerly applied to persons; as, "Our *Father which* art in heaven."—*Bible*. It may still be applied to a young child; as, "The child *which* died."—Or even to adults, when they are spoken of without regard to a distinct personality or identity; as, "*Which* of you will go?"—"Crabb knoweth not *which* is *which*, himself or his parodist."—*Leigh Hunt*.

IV.—Nouns of multitude, unless they express persons directly as such, should not be represented by the relative *who*: to say, “The *family whom* I visited,” would hardly be proper; *that* would here be better. When such nouns are strictly of the neuter gender, *which* may represent them; as, “The committees *which* were appointed.”

V.—A proper name taken merely as a name, or an appellative taken in any sense not strictly personal, must be represented by *which*, and not by *who*; as, “Herod—*which* is but another name for cruelty.”

VI.—The relative *that* may be applied either to persons or to things. In the following cases it is generally preferable to *who* or *which*, unless it be necessary to use a preposition before the relative:—

1. After an adjective of the superlative degree, when the relative introduces a modifying clause; as, “He was the *first that* came.”

2. After the adjective *same*, to explain its import; as, “This is the *same person that* I met before.”

3. After the antecedent *who*; as, “*Who that* has common sense, can think so?”

4. After a joint reference to persons and things; as, “He spoke of *e men and things that* he had seen.”

5. After an unlimited antecedent, which the relative and its verb are to restrict; as, “*Thoughts that* breathe, and *words that* burn.”

6. After an antecedent introduced by the expletive *it*; as, “*It is you that* command.”—“*It was I that* did it.”

7. And, in general, where the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as, “The little child *that* was placed in the midst.”

VII.—When several relative clauses come in succession, and have a similar dependence in respect to the antecedent, the same pronoun must be employed in each; as, “O thou *who* art, and *who* wast, and *who* art to come!”

VIII.—The relative, and the preposition governing it, should not be omitted when they are necessary to give connection to the sentence; as, “He is still in the situation [*in which*] you saw him.”

IX.—An adverb should not be used where a preposition and

a relative pronoun would better express the relation of the terms ; as, "A cause *where* [for *in which*] justice is so much concerned."

X.—Where a pronoun or a pronominal adjective will not express the meaning clearly, the noun must be repeated, or inserted instead of it. Example: "We see the beautiful variety of color in the rainbow, and are led to consider the cause of *it*" [that variety].

XI.—To prevent ambiguity or obscurity, the relative should be placed as near as possible to the antecedent. The following sentence is therefore faulty: "He is like a beast of prey, that is void of compassion." Better: "He that is void of compassion, is like a beast of prey."

XII.—The pronoun *what* should never be used instead of the conjunction *that* ; as, "He will not believe but *what* I am to blame." *What* should be *that*.

XIII.—A pronoun should not be used to represent an adjective ; because it can neither express a concrete quality as such, nor convert it properly into an abstract. Example: "Be *attentive* ; without *which* you will learn nothing." Better: "Be *attentive* ; *for* without *attention* you will learn nothing."

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—No person should be censured for being careful of their reputation.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *their* is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent noun *person*, which is of the third person, *singular*, masculine. But, according to Rule XIV., "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender." Therefore, *their* should be *his* ; thus, No person should be censured for being careful of *his* reputation. [See Obs. 2, under Rule XVI.]

Every one must judge of their own feelings.

Can any person, on their entrance into the world, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived ?

He cannot see one in prosperity without envying them.

I gave him oats, but he would not eat it.

Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them on Jacob.
Take up the tongs, and put it in its place.
Let each esteem others better than themselves.
A person may make themselves happy without riches.
Every man should try to provide for themselves.
The mind of man should not be left without something on
which to employ his energies.

I

Many words they darken speech.
These praises he then seemed inclined to retract them.
These people they are all very ignorant.
Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.
Who instead of going about doing good, they are perpetually
intent upon doing mischief.
Whom ye delivered up, and denied him in the presence of
Pontius Pilate.—*Acts*.
Whom, when they had washed, they laid her in an upper
chamber.—*Acts*.
What I have mentioned there are witnesses of the fact.
What he said he is now sorry for it.
The empress, approving these conditions, she immediately
ratified them.
This incident, though it appears improbable, yet I cannot
doubt the author's veracity.

II

Thou art my father's brother, else would I reprove you.
Your weakness is excusable, but thy wickedness is not.
Now, my son, I forgive thee, and freely pardon your fault.
You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song,
Till nobly rises emulous thy own.—*Thomson*.

III

This is the horse whom my father imported.
Those are the birds whom we call gregarious.
He has two brothers, one of which I am acquainted with.
What was that creature whom Job called leviathan?

Those which desire to be safe, should be careful to do that which is right.

A butterfly which thought himself an accomplished traveler, happened to light upon a bee-hive.

There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard.

IV.

The races who anciently invaded Europe were Aryans.

The court, who has great influence upon the public manners, ought to be very exemplary.

The Persian armies whom the Greeks defeated had been considered invincible.

V.

Judas (who is now another name for treachery) betrayed his master with a kiss.

He alluded to Phalaris—who is a name for all that is cruel.

VI.

He was the first who entered.

He was the drollest fellow whom I ever saw.

This is the same man whom we saw before.

Who is she who comes clothed in a robe of green?

The wife and fortune whom he gained, did not aid him.

Men who are avaricious never have enough.

All which I have is thine.

Was it thou or the wind who shut the door?

It was not I who shut it.

The babe who was in the cradle appeared to be healthy.

VII.

He is a man that knows what belongs to good manners, and who will not do a dishonorable act.

The friend who was here, and that entertained us so much, will never be able to visit us again.

The curiosities which he has brought home, and that we shall have the pleasure of seeing, are said to be very rare.

VIII.

Observe them in the order they stand.

We proceeded immediately to the place we were directed.

My companion remained a week in the state I left him.
The way I do it, is this.

IX.

Remember the condition whence thou art rescued.
I know of no rule how it may be done.
He drew up a petition, where he too freely represented his
own merits.
The hour is hastening, when whatever praise or censure I have
acquired, will be remembered with equal indifference.

X.

Many will acknowledge the excellence of religion, who cannot
tell wherein it consists.
Every difference of opinion is not that of principle.
Next to the knowledge of God, this of ourselves seems most
worthy of our endeavor.

XI.

Thou art thyself the man that committed the act, who hast
thus condemned it.
There is a certain majesty in simplicity, which is far above
the quaintness of wit.
Thou hast no right to judge who art a party concerned.
It is impossible for such men as those, ever to determine this
question, who are likely to get the appointment.
There are millions of people in the empire of China, whose
support is derived almost entirely from rice.

XII.

I had no idea but what the story was true.
The post-boy is not so weary but what he can whistle.
He had no intimation but what the men were honest.

XIII.

Some men are too ignorant to be humble; without which
there can be no docility.
Judas declared him innocent, which he could not be, had he
in any respect deceived the disciples.

Be accurate in all you say or do, for it is important in all the concerns of life.

Every law supposes the transgressor to be wicked, which indeed he is, if the law is just.

Promiscuous.

Did you commit the same mistake which I corrected you for?
Let every one of them attend to their own affairs.

The elephant whom they have tamed was brought from Africa.
That is the worst crime which could have been perpetrated.
They should have no aid from others who are negligent and slothful.

Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw.
All which beauty, all which wealth ever bestowed must finally pass away.

Do unto others as thou wouldst have others do unto you.
Thou art the man who hast committed the crime, but it is I who has suffered.

The man was arrested by the officers who committed that dreadful deed.

Parsing.

Parse all the pronouns in the sentences of the preceding exercise, and in the following.

EXAMPLE.—“I that speak unto thee am he.”

I is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, masculine gender (from the context), and the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *am*, according to the rule,—A noun or pronoun, etc.

That is a relative pronoun, and agrees with its antecedent *I* in the first person, singular number, and masculine gender, according to the rule,—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, etc.; it is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *speak*; according to the rule, etc.

Thee is a personal pronoun, of the second person, singular number, common in gender, and in the objective case, being the object of the preposition *unto*.

He is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and the nominative case, being the attribute after *am*, and agreeing with the subject *I*; according to the rule,—Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, etc.

All that live must die. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.
There is no law but can be evaded. Who reasons wisely is not always wise.
Let such teach others who themselves excel. What will become of us

without religion ? He who does what he knows to be wrong is a sinner. Let him be who he may, he is not the person that he seemed. What are we to do ? Whom did you suppose me to be ? Call imperfections what thou fanciest such. He gave freedom to such as desired it. Thou who speakest to me art she. Whatsoever he doeth shall prosper.

Rule XV.—Collective Antecedent.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it in the plural number ; but when it conveys the idea of unity, the pronoun must be singular ; as, “The council disagreed in their sentiments.”—“The nation will enforce its laws.”

[See Observation under Rule IX.]

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—The jury will be confined till it agrees on a verdict.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *it* is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent *jury*, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule XV., “When the antecedent is a collective noun, conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it in the plural number.” Therefore, *it* should be *they* ; thus, The jury will be confined till *they* agree on a verdict.

In youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure, as if it were its chief good.

The council was not unanimous, and it separated without any decision.

This court is famous for the justice of their decisions.

I saw all the species thus delivered from its sorrows.

A strange incident happened to the army, and put it in great consternation.

The company have lost several of their members.

A nation seldom duly reward their noblest benefactors.

The new board of directors have elected their officers.

The parliament will consider the matter at their next session.

The army was eating its dinner, when they were attacked by the enemy, and having been defeated, a large part of it was slain.

The convention then resolved themselves into a committee of the whole.

The crowd was so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through them.

Parsing.

Parse each pronoun and each collective noun in the above sentences.

Rule XVI.—Connected Antecedents.

When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number; as, "*James and John* will favor us with *their* company."

Exceptions.

1. When two or more antecedents connected by *and*, serve merely to describe one person or thing; they are in apposition, and do not require a plural pronoun; as, "This great *philosopher* and *statesman* continued in public life till *his* eighty-second year."

2. When two antecedents connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished, they belong to different propositions, and (if singular) do not require a plural pronoun; as, "*The butler*, and *not the baker*, was restored to *his* office."—"The *good man*, and the *sinner too*, shall have *his* reward."

3. When two or more antecedents connected by *and* are preceded by the adjective *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and do not require a plural pronoun; as, "*Every plant* and *every tree* produces others after *its* kind."

Observations.

1. When the antecedents are of *different persons*, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third; as, "John, and thou, and I, are attached to *our* country."—"John and thou are attached to *your* country."

2. The *gender* of pronouns, except in the third person singular, is distinguished only by their antecedents. In expressing that of a pronoun which has antecedents of *different genders*, the masculine should be preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter.

[See the Notes under Rule X., most of which are applicable to the pronoun as well as to the verb.]

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *itself* is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents *discontent* and *sorrow*, which are connected by *and*, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule XVI, “When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number.” Therefore, *itself* should be *themselves*; thus, Discontent and sorrow manifested *themselves* in his countenance.

Your levity and heedlessness, if it continue, will prevent all substantial improvement.

Poverty and obscurity will oppress him only who esteems it oppressive.

Good sense and refined policy are obvious to few, because it cannot be discovered but by a train of reflection.

Avoid haughtiness of behavior, and affectation of manners: it implies a want of solid merit.

If love and unity continue, it will make you partakers of one another’s joy.

Suffer not jealousy and distrust to enter: it will destroy, like a canker, every germ of friendship.

Hatred and animosity are inconsistent with Christian charity; guard, therefore, against the slightest indulgence of it.

Every man is entitled to liberty of conscience, and freedom of opinion, if he does not pervert it to the injury of others.

Every plant, every flower, and every insect, show the wisdom of their Creator. (*Exception 3.*)

Truth, and truth only, are worth seeking for their own sake. (*Exception 2.*)

He and I love and obey their parents. (*Obs. 1.*)

You, your brother, and I must attend to their work.

The same spirit, light, and life which enlighten also sanctify. (*Exception 1.*)

Parsing.

Parse each of the pronouns in the above sentences, when corrected.

Rule XVII.—Connected Antecedents.

When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number; as, “*James or John* will favor us with *his* company.”

Observations.

1. When a pronoun has two or more *plural* antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it is of course plural, and agrees with them severally. To the foregoing rule, there are properly *no exceptions*.

2. When antecedents of different persons, numbers, or genders, are connected by *or* or *nor*, they cannot, with strict propriety, be represented by a pronoun that is not applicable to each of them. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate: “Either *thou or I* am greatly mistaken in *our* judgment on this subject.”—*Murray’s Key*. But different pronouns may be so connected as to refer to such antecedents taken separately; as, “By requiring greater labor from such *slave or slaves*, than *he or she or they* are able to perform.”—*Prince’s Digest*. Or, if the gender only be different, the masculine may involve the feminine by implication; as, “If a man smite the eye of his *servant* or the eye of his *maid* that it perish, he shall let *him* go free for *his* eye’s sake.”—*Exodus*, xxi., 26.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Neither wealth nor honor can secure the happiness of their votaries.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *their* is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents *wealth* and *honor*, which are connected by *nor*, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule XVII., “When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor*, it must agree with them in the singular number.” Therefore, *their* should be *its*; thus, Neither wealth nor honor can secure the happiness of *its* votaries.

Neither Sarah, Ann, nor Jane, has performed their task.

One or the other must relinquish their claim.

A man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which will move only as they are moved.

Rye or barley, when they are scorched, may supply the place of coffee.

A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture as well as read them in a description.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life, for they may be thy own lot.

Have you seen my ox or my cow, which have strayed from the pasture?

Neither Sarah nor her brother Charles seemed to know their lessons.

Either you or I must be mistaken in our opinion.

Parsing.

Parse all the pronouns in the above sentences, when corrected.

III.—GOVERNMENT.

Government has respect only to nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles, and prepositions; the other five parts of speech neither govern nor are governed. The governing words may be either nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles, or prepositions; the words governed are either nouns, pronouns, verbs, or participles.

Rule XVIII.—Possessives.

A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed; as,

“Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine;

Touch’d by thy hand, again Rome’s glories shine.”

Observations.

1. When a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case is used as an attribute, it is governed by the subject to which it relates; as, “The book is *mine*, and not *John’s*.”

2. The sign of the possessive is omitted in some appositive or connected terms; as, “In her *brother* Absalom’s house.”—“*David* and Jonathan’s friendship.”—“*Adam* and Eve’s morning hymn.”—“Behold, the heaven, and the heaven of heavens, is the Lord’s thy *God*.”—*Deut., x.*

3. Where the governing noun cannot be easily mistaken, it is often omitted by ellipsis; as, "At the aldermen's" [*house*].—"A book of my brother's" [*books*].—"A subject of the emperor's" [*subjects*].

4. The possessive sign is sometimes annexed to that part of a compound name, which is, of itself, in the objective case; as, "The *captain-of-the-guard's* house."—*Bible*. "The *Bard-of-Lomond's* lay is done."—*Hogg*. "Of the *Children-of-Israel's* half thou shalt take one portion."—*Num.*, xxxi. The hyphens, inserted here for illustration, are not usually employed. In the following phrase, the possessive sign is awkwardly added to an adjective: "In Henry the *Eighth's* time." Better: "In the time of Henry the Eighth." In the following line, the adjective elegantly takes the sign, there being an ellipsis of both nouns:

"The rich man's joys increase, the *poor's* decay."—*Goldsmith*.

5. To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the *s* is sometimes omitted, and the apostrophe alone retained to mark the possessive singular; as, "For *conscience'* sake."—*Bible*. "*Moses'* minister."—*Ibid*. "*Felix'* room."—*Ibid*. "*Achilles'* wrath."—*Pope*. But in prose the full form should be used.

6. A participle is sometimes used to govern the possessive case, while retaining the government and adjuncts of a participle; as, "This will be the effect of the pupil's *composing* frequently."—*Murray*. "What can be the reason of the committee's *having delayed* this business?"—*Id*. Sometimes this construction is awkward, and should be avoided. Thus, it would be better to say, "Why have the committee delayed this business?"

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—In the use of the possessive case, its appropriate form should be observed; thus, write *men's*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*; and not *mens'*, *her's*, *it's*, *our's*, *your's* *their's*.

II.—When nouns of the possessive case are connected by conjunctions, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must always be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the governing noun, expressed or understood; as, "*John and Eliza's* teacher is a man of more learning than *James's* or *Andrew's*."—"For *David* my *servant's* sake."—*Bible*. "Lost in *love's* and *friendship's* smile."—*Scott*.

III.—The relation of property may also be expressed by the preposition *of* and the objective: as, "The will *of* *man*;" for, "*man's* will." Of these forms, we should adopt that which

will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable, and, by the use of both, avoid an unpleasant repetition of either.

IV.—A noun governing the possessive plural, should not be made plural, unless the sense requires it. Thus say, “We have changed our *mind*,” if only one purpose or opinion is meant.

OBS.—A noun taken figuratively may be singular, when the literal meaning would require the plural: such expressions as, “their *face*,”—“their *neck*,”—“their *hand*,”—“their *head*,”—“their *heart*,”—“our *mouth*,”—“our *life*,”—are frequent in the Scriptures, and are not improper.

V.—The possessive case should not be prefixed to a participle, or to a participial phrase, where unnecessary, or when the construction thus formed would be awkward or inelegant. The following phrase is therefore faulty: “Adopted by the Goths in *their* pronouncing the Greek.” Omit *their*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Thy ancestors virtue is not thine.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the noun *ancestors*, which is intended for the possessive plural, has not the appropriate form of that case. But, according to Note I., under Rule XVIII., “In the use of the possessive case, its appropriate form should be observed.” An apostrophe is required after *ancestors*; thus, Thy *ancestors’* virtue is not thine.

I.

Mans chief good is an upright mind.
 I will not destroy the city for ten sake.
 Moses rod was turned into a serpent.
 They are wolves in sheeps clothing.
 The tree is known by it’s fruit.
 The privilege is not their’s, any more than it is your’s.
 Yet he was gentle as soft summer airs,
 Had grace for others sins, but none for theirs’.

II.

There is but little difference between the Earth and Venus’s diameter.

This hat is John or James's.

The store is opposite to Morris's and Company's.

This palace had been the grand Sultan's Mahomet's.

This was the Apostle's Paul's advice.

Were Cain's occupation and Abel the same?

Were Cain and Abel's occupation the same?

Were Cain's and Abel's occupations the same?

Were Cain and Abel's parents the same?

Were Cain's parents and Abel the same?

Was Cain's and Abel's father there?

Were Cain's and Abel's parents there?

Thy Maker's will has placed thee here,
A Maker's wise and good.

III.

The world's government is not left to chance.

He was Louis the Sixteenth's son's heir.

The throne we honor is the choice of the people.

We met at my brother's partner's house.

An account of the proceedings of the court of Alexander.

Here is a copy of the Constitution of the Society of Teachers
of the City of New York.

IV.

Their healths perhaps may be pretty well secured.

We have all the talents committed to our charges.

For your sakes forgave I it, in the sight of Christ.

We are, for our parts, well satisfied.

The pious cheerfully submit to their lots.

Fools think it not worth their whiles to be wise.

V.

I rewarded the boy for his studying so diligently.

Have you a rule for your thus parsing the participle?

He errs in his giving the word a double construction.

By our offending others, we expose ourselves.

They deserve our thanks for their quickly relieving us.

Promiscuous.

Brown and Jones's house will be occupied by the respective owners.

Edward the Second's death was a shocking one.

I have seen neither William nor Charles's book.

Socrates' sayings are recorded in Plato and Xenophon's works.

Horace' poems show great genius.

Adam was Cain's and Abel's father.

Men and women's shoes are made differently.

Jones's and Taylor's store was destroyed by fire.

All good people must take this lesson to their hearts.

Queen Elizabeth mourned on account of Essex' sad fate.

Parsing.

Parse all the possessives in the above sentences when corrected.

Rule XIX.—Object of the Verb.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case; as, "I found *her* assisting *him*."—"Having finished the *work*, I submit *it*."

Observations.

1. The objective case generally follows the governing word: but when it is emphatic, it often precedes the nominative; as, "*Me* he restored to mine office, and *him* he hanged."—*Gen.* xli., 13. "*Home* he had not."—*Thomson*. "This *point* they have gained." In poetry it is sometimes placed between the nominative and the verb; as, "His darling foe securely *him* defied."—*Milton*. "The broom its yellow *leaf* hath shed."

2. An active-transitive verb is often followed by the direct object of the action, and the *indirect object*, or that in respect to which the action is performed. The latter is usually preceded by a preposition, which is sometimes understood; as, "I paid [to] him the money."—"They offered [to] me a seat."—"He asked [of] them the question."

3. In expressing such sentences passively, the object of the preposition is sometimes assumed for the nominative; as, "*He* was paid *the*

money," instead of, "*The money was paid [to] him.*" The direct object should, however, generally be made the subject of the passive verb; but in some cases, usage seems to sanction the reverse; as, "The boy was taught *grammar*"; instead of, "Grammar was taught [to] the boy."—"He was denied the privilege." In this construction, the noun following the passive still continues to be an *object of the action* expressed by the verb, and is, accordingly, in the objective case.

4. An active-transitive verb is sometimes followed by an object and an attribute agreeing with it; as, "Thy saints proclaim thee king," *i.e.*, that thou art king.—"The Author of my being formed *me man.*"—*Murray*. "And God called the *firmament Heaven.*"—*Bible*. And, in such a construction, the direct object is sometimes placed before the verb; as, "And *Simon* he surnamed Peter."—*Mark* iii.

5. Some verbs, usually intransitive, govern only a noun of kindred meaning; as, "He *lived* a virtuous *life.*"—"Joseph *dreamed* a dream."

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—Those verbs and participles which require an object, should not be used intransitively; as, "She *affects* [*kindness*] in order to *ingratiate* [*herself*] with you."—"I will not *allow* of it." Omit *of*.

II.—Those verbs and participles which do not admit an object, should not be used transitively; as, "The planter *grow* cotton." Say *raise*, or *cultivate*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—She I shall more readily forgive.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *she* is in the nominative case, and is used as the object of the active-transitive verb *shall forgive*. But according to Rule XIX., "Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case." Therefore, *she* should be *her*; thus, *Her* I shall more readily forgive.

Thou only have I chosen.

Who shall we send on this errand?

My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him.

He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

Who should I meet but my old friend!

He accosts whoever he meets.

Whosoever the court favors is safe.

They that honor me I will honor.

Who do you think I saw the other day?

Let you and I avoid such company.

I.

The ambitious are always seeking to aggrandize.

I must premise with three circumstances.

This society does not allow of personal reflections.

False accusation cannot diminish from real merit.

His servants ye are to whom ye obey.

II.

Good keeping thrives the herd.

We endeavored to agree the parties.

Being weary, he sat him down.

Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah.

The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject.

Parsing.

Parse all the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences.

His father presented him a gold watch. The teacher refused him permission. The savages at last gave them their liberty. They asked him a curious question. The governor offered him a large reward. They paid him the money. His father denied him the privilege. They showed him some beautiful pictures.

Change the active-transitive verb in each of these sentences to a passive verb, using the direct or indirect object for the nominative, as may be preferable.

Rule XX.—Object of the Preposition.

Prepositions govern the objective case; as, “Beauty dwells *in them*, and they *in her*.”

Observations.

1. Prepositions are sometimes *elliptically* construed with *adjectives*; as, *in vain*, *in secret*, *at first*, *on high*; i.e., *in a vain manner*, *in secret places*, *at the first time*, *on high places*. Such phrases imply time, place, degree, or manner, and are equivalent to adverbs. In parsing, the learner may supply the ellipsis.

2. In a few instances prepositions precede *adverbs*; as, *at once*, *from above*, *for ever*. These should be united, and parsed as *adverbs*, or else the adverb must be parsed as a noun.

3 When nouns of *time* or *measure* are connected with verbs or adjectives, the prepositions which govern them, are generally suppressed; as, "We rode sixty miles that day;" that is, "*through* sixty miles *on* that day."—"The wall is ten feet high;" that is, "high *to* ten feet." The ellipsis must be supplied, or the expression considered as adverbial.

4. After the adjectives *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, the preposition *to* or *unto* is often understood; as, "It is *like* [*to* or *unto*] silver."—*Allen*. "How *like* the former!"—*Dryden*. "*Near* yonder copse."—*Goldsmith*. "*Nigh* this recess."—*Garth*. As similarity and proximity are *relations*, and not *qualities*, it might seem proper to call *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, prepositions; and some grammarians have so classed the last two. We have not placed them with the prepositions for *four* reasons: (1.) Because they are sometimes *compared*; (2.) Because they sometimes have *adverbs* evidently relating to them; (3.) Because the preposition *to* or *unto* is sometimes expressed after them; and, (4.) Because the words which *usually* stand for them in the learned languages, are clearly *adjectives*. *Like*, when it expresses similarity of *manner*, and *near* and *nigh*, when they express proximity of *degree*, are *adverbs*.

5. The adjective *worth*, like the words *near*, *nigh*, etc., is followed by a noun or a participle expressing limitation, without a governing preposition; as, "To reign is *worth* ambition."—*Milton*. "This is life indeed, life *worth* preserving."—*Addison*. The relation in this case, according to idiom, never being indicated by a preposition, cannot be expressed except by a periphrase; but, it must be borne in mind, that it is the *relation* that governs, whether expressed or not.

6. In the phrases, "woe *worth* the day," "woe *worth* the man," and the like, the word *worth* is the imperative of the Anglo-Saxon verb *weordhan*, to be, to become, *to* being understood; hence the meaning is, Woe be to the day, etc.

7. After verbs of *giving*, *procuring*, and some others, there is usually an ellipsis of *to* or *for* before the objective of the person; as, "Give [*to*] him water to drink."—"Buy [*for*] me a knife." So also in the exclamation, "Woe is *me*!" meaning, "Woe is *to* me!"

8. After the verb *cost*, there is also an ellipsis of the preposition; as, "A diamond gone, *cost* me two thousand ducats."—*Shakspeare*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—It rests with thou and me to decide.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *thou* is in the nominative case, and is governed by the preposition *with*. But, according to Rule XX., "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore, *thou* should be *thee*. Thus, It rests with *thee* and me to decide.

Let that remain a secret between you and I.
 I lent the book to some one, I know not who.
 Who did he inquire for? Thou.
 From he that is needy, turn not away.
 We are all accountable, each for his own act's.
 Does that boy know who he is speaking to?
 I bestow my favors on whosoever I will.
 Except him and I, no one saw it.

Parsing.

Parse the prepositions and all words printed in Italics in the following sentences.

My sister is five *years* of age. The house is twenty *feet* high. Envy is *like* the *scorpion* that stings itself to death. I gave my *brother* a bag of marbles. The house is *worth* ten thousand *dollars*. What he offered *me* was not *worth having*. In *vain* did they beseech him for mercy. The book cost *me* five *dollars*. Will you buy *me* a knife at the store? In words, *like weeds*, I'll wrap me *o'er*. Be *near me* when I fade away.

Rule XXI.—Infinitives.

The preposition *to* commonly governs the infinitive mood, and connects it to a finite verb, or some other part of speech; as, "I desire *to learn*."—"I went *to see* my friend."—"He is anxious *to succeed*."

Observations.

1. The word *to*, generally used with the infinitive mood, serves to indicate the mood (in the absence of a special inflection), and, usually, to express the relation between the verb and the word which it limits or modifies. In such cases, the infinitive mood with *to* is equivalent to a prepositional phrase. In other constructions, however, the word *to* loses its prepositional office; as when the infinitive is used as the subject or the object of a verb. In the latter case, being the object of the verb, it cannot be the object of the preposition.

2. When the infinitive is the object of the preposition, it may be joined to various parts of speech:—

1. To a *noun*; as, "He had *leave to go*."

2. To an *adjective*; as, "We were *anxious to see you*."

3. To an intransitive verb ; as, "He's *gone* to do it."—"I *rejoice* to hear it."
4. To an adverb ; as, "She is old *enough* to go to school."
5. To a pronoun ; as, "It is *ours* to transmit."
3. The other usages of the infinitive mood are the following :—
 1. As the subject of a verb ; as, "*To steal* is sinful."
 2. As the object of a verb ; as, "He loves *to ride*."
 3. As the attribute ; as, "To enjoy is *to obey*."—"He seemed *to be* guilty."—"His conduct is *to be admired*."—"They were *to blame*."
 4. As a mere term of comparison ; as, "He was so much affected *as to weep*."—"He knows better than *to trust* you."
 5. As the object of another preposition ; as, "I was *about* to write."—"He did nothing but [to] *idle* away his time."
 6. As independent ; as, "O *to forget* her!"—"To confess the truth, I was to blame."—"To be or not to be ;—that is the question."
 7. As the predicate in a dependent clause ; as, "I suppose it *to be* necessary."

In this last case, the word *to* has, of course, no prepositional force, becoming merely the sign of the infinitive.

4. An adverb, or other modifying expression, should not be inserted between the verb and the word *to* which belongs to it ; as, "It is wrong to stubbornly oppose the truth" ; say, "stubbornly to oppose," etc.

5. The infinitive is often used in the perfect tense for the present ; as, "He intended *to have done it*," instead of, "to do it."

6. The use of *and* for *to*, though very common, is improper and inelegant ; as, "Will you try *and* do it for me ?" It should be, "*to* do it."

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Ought these things be tolerated ?

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the infinitive *be tolerated*, is not preceded by the preposition *to*. But, according to Rule XXI., "The preposition *to* commonly governs the infinitive mood, and connects it to a finite verb or some other part of speech." Therefore, *to* should be inserted ; thus, Ought these things *to be* tolerated ?

Please excuse my son's absence.

Cause every man go out from me.

I would not have let him gone. (Obs. 5.)

Try and let me have the money, if you can. (Obs. 6.)

To foolishly squander one's time is a sin. (Obs. 4.)

I expected to have been there in time.

He was to finish the work before I came.

It is requisite to carefully read a document before signing it.

It is better to suffer wrongfully than be guilty of wrong.

It is unjust to so decide the case.

Parsing.

Parse all the infinitives in the following sentences.

EXAMPLE 1.—The pupil had permission to go home.

To go is an irregular, active-transitive verb, from *go, went, going, gone*. It is in the infinitive mood, and present tense, and is governed by the preposition *to*, characterizing it as the noun *permission*, which the phrase *to go home* modifies; according to the rule.—The preposition *to* commonly governs the infinitive mood, and connects it to a finite verb, or some other part of speech.

EXAMPLE 2.—To have required him to leave would have been to insult him.

To have required is a regular, active-transitive verb, from *require, required, requiring, required*. It is in the infinitive mood and perfect tense, and, with its adjunct, is the subject of the verb *would have been*; according to the 3, under Rule XXI.

To leave is an irregular, active-transitive verb, from *leave, left, leaving, left*. It is in the infinitive mood and present tense, and is the predicate of the object clause *him to leave*—equivalent to *that he should leave*; according to the 3, under Rule XXI.

To insult is a regular, active-transitive verb, from *insult, insulted, insulting, insulted*. It is in the infinitive mood, present tense, and with its adjunct *him*, is the structure after *would have been*; according to the 3, Rule XXI.

To be temperate in all things is the characteristic of a wise man. His father had much to say to him. They asked if it was good to eat. To speak rashly is a great fault. He begged to be allowed to go home. The event is greatly to be deplored. The ship was to sail last week. They were prone to find fault, and very hard to please. Have you had nothing to eat to-day? This is to be done without delay. They forced him to do it. He was obliged to remain. He was seen to commit the act. Nobody imagined him to be so cruel. We have a duty to perform. Generations yet to be born shall lament this event. He believed his son to have been punished unjustly. The army was commanded to march against the enemy. Be so good as to tell me of the affair. He knows better than to do such a thing. They said their only desire was to be let alone. He was about to depart when the officers came to arrest him. He said he would rather die than betray his friend.

“None knew thee but to love thee,
Nor named thee but to praise.”

IV.—MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

Rule XXII.—Infinitives.

The active verbs, *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition *to*; as, “If he bade thee *depart*, how darest thou *stay*?”

Observations.

1. The preposition is almost always employed after the passive form of these verbs, and in some instances after the active; as, “He was heard *to* say.”—“I cannot see *to* do it.”—“What would dare *to* molest him who might call, on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty?”—*Dr. Johnson*.

2. The auxiliary *be* of the passive infinitive is also suppressed, after *feel*, *hear*, *make*, and *see*; as, “I heard the letter *read*,”—not, “*be* read.”

3. A few other verbs, besides the eight which are mentioned in the foregoing rule, *sometimes* have the infinitive after them without *to*; such as, *behold*, *find*, *have*, *help*, *mark*, *observe*, and other equivalents of *see*. Example: “Certain’y it is heaven upon earth, to *have* a man’s mind *move* in charity, *rest* in Providence, and *turn* upon the poles of truth.”—*Bacon*.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—They need not to call upon her.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the preposition *to* is inserted before *call*, which follows the active verb *need*. But, according to Rule XXII., “The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition *to*.” Therefore, *to* should be omitted; thus, They need not call upon her.

I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me.

I have heard him to mention the subject.

Bid the boys to come in immediately.

I dare to say he has not got home yet.

Let no rash promise to be made.

We sometimes see bad men to be honored.

A good reader will make himself to be distinctly heard.

Do you not observe it to move?

Can I not make this matter be understood?
 Bid the officers to do their duty.
 They have been bidden do it already.

Parsing.

Parse all the infinitives in the above sentences when corrected.

EXAMPLE.—“Let love be without dissimulation.”

Be is an irregular, neuter verb, from *be*, *was*, *being*, *been*. It is in the infinitive mood and present tense, being the predicate of the clause dependent on *let*, according to Obs. 3, under Rule XXI. The word *to* is omitted after *let*, according to the rule,—The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, etc.

Rule XXIII.—Subjunctive Mood.

A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive present; and a mere supposition with indefinite time, by a verb in the subjunctive imperfect: but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mood; as, “If thou *forsake* him, he will cast thee off forever.”—“If it *were* not so, I would have told you.”—“If thou *went*, nothing would be gained.”—“Though he *is* poor, he is contented.”

OBS.—The pupil must carefully study the three points involved in this rule, and the cases to which they apply. The subjunctive mood is required only when the event or fact is both *future* and *contingent*, that is, dependent upon the occurrence of some other future event. The time is indefinite, being, only relatively, present or past. The difference between the conditional statement of a *fact* and a future contingency will be obvious from these two sentences:—

1. If he *be* sick, I will visit him. (*Subjunctive.*)
2. Though he *is* sick, he does not repine. (*Indicative.*)

In (1) the act of visiting is future and contingent upon his sickness; in (2) the sickness is a fact (he *is* sick), and he *does* not repine. The sentence, If he *were* sick, I would visit him, contains a supposition with *indefinite time* (if he were sick *at any time*). It is relatively past, as these sentences will show:—

1. If he *be* sick (and he *may be*), I will visit him.
2. If he *were* sick (but he *is* not), I would visit him.
3. If he *had been* sick (but he *was* not), I would have visited him.

False Syntax.

First Clause of the Rule.

EXAMPLE.—He will not be pardoned, unless he repents.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *repents*, which is used to express a future contingency, is in the indicative mood. But, according to the first clause of Rule XXIII., “A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive present. Therefore, *repents* should be *repent*; thus, He will not be pardoned, unless he *repent*.”

He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate.

They will fine thee, unless thou offerest an excuse.

I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rains.

Let him take heed lest he falls.

On condition that he comes, I consent to stay.

If he is but discreet, he will succeed.

Take heed that thou speakest not to Jacob.

If thou castest me off, I shall be miserable.

Send them to me, if thou pleasest.

Watch the door of thy lips, lest thou utterest folly.

Second Clause.

EXAMPLE.—And so would I, if I was he.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *was*, which is used to express a mere supposition, with indefinite time, is in the indicative mood. But, according to the second clause of Rule XXIII., “A mere supposition, with indefinite time, is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive imperfect.” Therefore *was* should be *were*; thus, And so would I, if I *were* he.

If I was to write, he would not regard it.

If thou feltest as I do, we should soon decide.

Though thou sheddest thy blood in the cause, it would but prove thee sincerely a fool.

If thou lovedst him, there would be more evidence of it.

I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well.

If love was never feigned, it would appear to be scarce.

There fell from his eyes as it had been scales.

If he was an imposter, he must have been detected.

Was death denied, all men would wish to die.

O that there was yet a day to redress thy wrongs!

Though thou was huge as Atlas, thy efforts would be vain.

Last Clause.

EXAMPLE.—If he know the way, he does not need a guide.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb *know*, which is used to express a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, is in the subjunctive mood. But, according to the last clause of Rule XXIII., "A conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mood." Therefore, *know* should be *knows*; thus, If he *knows* the way, he does not need a guide.

Though he seem to be artless, he has deceived us.

If he be defeated, he has not given up all hope.

Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen.

If thou love tranquillity of mind, why engage in disputes?

If seasons of idleness be dangerous, what must a continued habit of it prove.

Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered.

I knew thou wert not slow to hear.

Analysis and Parsing.

Analyze and parse each of the foregoing sentences, after correction, according to preceding examples, and apply Rule XXIII.

Rule XXIV.—Independent Case.

A noun or a pronoun is put in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word; as, "*He failing*, who shall meet success?"—"Your *fathers*, where are they?"

Exception.

An independent pronoun is sometimes used in the objective case; as, "*Me* miserable! which way shall I fly?"—*Milton*. "Ah *me*!" [See Obs. 2, Rule XXVI.]

Observations.

1. A noun or a pronoun is independent under the following *four circumstances* :—

1. When, with a participle, it is used to express a cause or some other related event; as, "*Thou looking on*, I shall not fail." This is usually called the case absolute,

2. When it is used to indicate simply the person addressed ; as, “O *thou* that dwellest in the heavens.”
3. When, by *pleonasm*, it is introduced abruptly for the sake of emphasis ; as, “*He* that is in the city, famine and pestilence shall devour him.”
4. When, by mere *exclamation*, it is used without address, and without other words expressed or implied to give it construction ; as, “O, what *folly* !”

2. The nominative *put absolute with a participle*, is equivalent to a dependent clause commencing with *when, while, if, since, or because* ; as, “I being a child,”—equal to, “When [*since or because*] I was a child.”

3. The participle *being* is often understood after nouns or pronouns put absolute ; as,

“Alike in ignorance, his reason [——] such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much.”—*Pope*.

4. The case of nouns used in exclamations, or in mottoes and abbreviated sayings, often depends, or may be conceived to depend, on something *understood* ; and, when their construction can be satisfactorily explained on the principle of ellipsis, *they are not put absolute*. The following examples may perhaps be resolved in this manner, though the expressions will lose much of their vivacity : “A *horse!* a *horse!* my *kingdom* for a horse !”

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *him*, whose case depends on no other word, is in the objective case. But, according to Rule XXIV., “A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word.” Therefore, *him* should be *he* ; thus, *He* having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

Me being young, they deceived me.

Them refusing to comply, I withdrew.

Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.

The child is lost ; and me, whither shall I go !

Oh happy us ! surrounded thus with blessings !

：“Thee too ! Brutus, my son !” cried Cæsar, overcome.

But him, the chieftain of them all,

His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

Her quick relapsing to her former state,

With boding fears approach the serving train.

There all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

Parsing.

Parse the independent nouns and pronouns in the foregoing sentences, when corrected.

Rule XXV.—Conjunctions.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences ; as, “ John *and* James are studious, *but* William is idle.”

Exceptions.

1. The conjunction *that* sometimes serves merely to introduce a sentence which is made the subject of a verb ; as, “ *That* mind is not matter, is certain.” Its connective force consists in showing that the clause is dependent.

2. When two corresponding conjunctions occur in their usual order, the former should be considered as referring to the latter, which is more properly the connecting word ; as, “ *Neither* sun *nor* stars in many days appeared.”

3. *Either*, corresponding to *or*, and *neither*, corresponding to *nor* or *not*, are sometimes transposed, so as to repeat the disjunction or negation at the end of the sentence ; as, “ Where then was their capacity of standing, *or* his *either* ? ”—*Barclay*. “ It is *not* dangerous *neither*.”—*Bolingbroke*. “ He is very tall, but *not* too tall *neither*.”—*Spectator*.

Observations.

1. Conjunctions are sometimes unnecessarily accumulated ; as, “ *But and if* that evil servant say in his heart.”—*Matthew* xxiv. Omit *and*.

2. In the combination *but that*, the former seems to have the force of a preposition, being equivalent to *except* ; as, “ What rests, *but that* the mortal sentence pass ? ”—*Milton*. In this sentence, *but* seems to be a preposition, having the following clause for its object, the prepositional structure thus formed limiting *what*.

3. The conjunction *as* is sometimes used to connect the attribute and the subject ; as, “ He was employed *as* an usher.” It may also connect the indirect attribute with an object to which it refers ; as, “ He offered himself *as* a journeyman.” [In some cases of this kind, perhaps in the above sentences, *as* seems to have the force of a preposition, as it denotes a relation which may usually be expressed by *in the capacity of*,

or the like ; as, "His judgment *as* a critic was very reliable." Here *critic* appears to be the object of the relation expressed by *as*, which must, therefore, be a preposition. There, certainly, is no connection of appositional terms, nor of any subject and attribute.—EDITOR.]

4. After *than* or *as* expressing a comparison, there is usually an ellipsis of some word or words. The construction of the words employed may be known by supplying the ellipsis ; as, "She is younger than I" [*am*].—"He does nothing who endeavors to do more than [*what*] is allowed to humanity."—*Johnson*. "My punishment is greater than [*what*] I can bear."—*Bible*.

Notes, or Subordinate Rules.

I.—When two terms connected refer jointly to a third, they must be adapted to it and to each other, both in sense and in form. Thus, instead of, "It always *has*, and always will be laudable," say, "It always *has been*, and *it* always will be laudable."

II.—The disjunctive conjunction *lest* or *but*, should not be employed where the copulative *that* would be more proper : as, "I feared *that* I should be deserted ;" not, "*lest* I should be deserted."

III.—After *else*, *other*, *rather*, and *all comparatives*, the latter term of comparison should be introduced by the conjunction *than* ; as, "Can there be any *other than* this ?"—"Is not the life *more than* meat ?"

IV.—The words in each of the following pairs, are the proper *correspondents* to each other ; and care should be taken to give them their right place in the sentence.

1. *Though—yet* ; as, "*Though* he were dead, *yet* shall he live."—*John* xi.

2. *Whether—or* ; as, "*Whether* there be few *or* many."

3. *Either—or* ; as, "He was *either* ashamed *or* afraid."

4. *Neither—nor* ; as, "John the Baptist came *neither* eating bread *nor* drinking wine."—*Luke* vii.

5. *Both—and* ; as, "I am debtor *both* to the Greeks *and* to the Barbarians."—*Rom.* i.

6. *Such—as* ; as, "An assembly *such as* earth saw never."

7. *Such—that* ; with a finite verb following, to express a consequence ; as, "My health is *such that* I cannot go."

8. *As—as* ; with an adjective or an adverb, to express equality ; as, "The peasant is *as* gay *as* he."

9. *As—so* ; with two verbs, to express equality or proportion ; as, "As two are to four, *so* are six to twelve."

10. *So—as* ; with an adjective or an adverb, to limit the degree by comparison ; as, "How can you descend to a thing *so* base *as* falsehood ?"

11. *So—as* ; with a negative preceding, to deny equality ; as, "No lamb was e'er *so* mild *as* he."

12. *So—as* ; with an infinitive following, to express a consequence ; as, "These difficulties were *so* great *as* to discourage him."

13. *So—that* ; with a finite verb following, to express a consequence ; as, "He was *so* much injured, *that* he could not walk."

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—The first proposal was essentially different and inferior to the second.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the preposition *to*, is used with joint reference to the two adjectives *different* and *inferior*, which require different prepositions. But, according to Note I. under Rule XXV., "When two terms connected refer jointly to a third, they must be adapted to it and to each other, both in sense and in form." The sentence may be corrected thus : The first proposal was essentially different *from* the second, and inferior *to* it.

I.

He has made alterations and additions to the work.

He is more bold, but not so wise, as his companion.

Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, than knowledge.

I always have, and I always shall be, of this opinion.

What is now kept secret, shall be hereafter displayed and heard in the clearest light.

We pervert the noble faculty of speech, when we use it to the defaming or to disquiet our neighbors.

Be more anxious to acquire knowledge than of showing it.

The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law.

II.

We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened.

I do not deny but he has merit.

Are you afraid lest he will forget you ?

These paths and bow'rs, doubt not but our joint hands
Will keep from wilderness.—*Milton.*

III.

It was no other but his own father.
 Have you no other proof except this?
 I expected something more besides this.
 He no sooner retires but his heart burns with devotion.
 Such literary filching is nothing else but robbery.

IV.

Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand.
 He would not either do it himself nor let me do it.
 The majesty of good things is such, as the confines of them
 are reverend.
 Whether he intends to do so I cannot tell.
 Send me such articles only that are adapted to this market.
 As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.
 No errors are so trivial but they deserve correction.
 It will improve neither the mind nor delight the fancy.
 The one is equally deserving as the other.
 There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change.
 Do you think this is so good as that?
 The relations are so obscure as they require much thought.
 None is so fierce that dare stir him up.
 There was no man so sanguine who did not apprehend some
 ill consequence.
 I must be so candid to own that I do not understand it.
 The book is not as well printed as it ought to be.
 So still he sat as those who wait
 Till judgment speak the doom of fate.—*Scott*.

Rule XXVI.—Interjections.

Interjections have no dependent construction; as, “*O!*
 let not thy heart despise me.”—*Johnson*.

Observations.

1. The interjection *O* is common to many languages, and is frequently prefixed to nouns or pronouns that are independent by direct address; as, “*Arise, O Lord; O God, lift up thine hand.*”—*Psalms* x.
 “*O ye of little faith!*”—*Matt.* vi.

2. Interjections in English have no government. When a word not in the nominative absolute, follows an interjection, as part of an imperfect exclamation, its construction depends on something *understood*, as, "Ah *me*!"—that is, "Ah! *pity* me."—"Alas *for* them!"—that is, "Alas! I *sigh* for them."—"O *for* that warning voice!"—that is, "O! *how* I long for that warning voice!"—"O! *that* they were wise!"—that is, "O! *how* I wish that they were wise!" Such expressions, however, lose much of their vivacity, when the ellipsis is supplied.

3. Interjections may be placed *before* or *after* a simple sentence, and sometimes *between* its parts; but they are seldom allowed to interrupt the connection of words closely united in sense.

Promiscuous Examples of False Syntax.

LESSON I.

It is here expected that the learner will ascertain for himself the proper form of correcting each example, according to the particular Rule or Note under which it belongs.

There is a spirit in man, and the inspiration of the Almighty giveth them understanding.

My people doth not consider.

I have never heard who they invited.

Then hasten thy return; for, thee away,
No lustre has the sun, nor joy the day.

I am as well as when you was here.

That elderly man, he that came in late, I supposed to be the superintendent.

All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable.

It must indeed be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

There was more persons than one engaged in this affair.

A man who lacks ceremony has need for great merit.

A wise man avoids the showing any excellence in trifles.

The most important and first female quality is sweetness of temper.

We choose rather lead than follow.

Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as admiration.

He must fear many, who many fear.

Every one partake of honor bestowed on the worthy.

The king nor the queen were not at all deceived.

Was there no difference, there would be no choice.

179 • I had rather have been informed.

Must thee return this evening?

Life and death is in the power of the tongue.

I saw a person that I took to be she.
 Let him be whom he may, I shall not stop.
 This is certainly an useful invention.
 That such a spirit as thou dost not understand me.
 "It is no more but justice," quoth the farmer.

LESSON II.

Great improvements has been made.
 It is undoubtedly true what I have heard.
 The nation is torn by feuds which threaten their ruin.
 The account of these transactions were incorrect.
 Godliness with contentment are great gain.
 The number of sufferers have not been ascertained.
 There are one or more of them yet in confinement.
 They have chose the wisest part.
 He spent his whole life in doing of good.
 They know scarcely that temperance is a virtue.
 I am afraid lest I have labored in vain.
 Mischief to itself doth back recoil.
 This construction sounds rather harshly.
 What is the cause of the leaves curling?
 Was it thee that made the noise?
 Let thy flock clothe upon the naked.
 Wisdom and knowledge is granted unto thee.
 His conduct was surprising strange.
 This woman taught my brother and I to read.
 Let your promises be such that you can perform.
 We shall sell them in the state they now are.
 We may add this observation, however.
 This came in fashion when I was young.
 I did not use the leaves, but root of the plant.
 We have used every mean in our power continually.
 Pass ye away, thou inhabitant of Saphir.—*Micah*.
 Give every syllable and every letter their proper sound.

LESSON III.

To know exactly how much mischief may be ventured upon with impunity, are knowledge enough for some folks.
 Every leaf and every twig teem with life.
 I was rejoiced at this intelligence.
 I was afraid that I should have lost the parcel.
 Which of all these patterns is the prettier?
 They which despise instruction shall not be wise.
 Both thou and thy advisers have mistaken their interest.

A idle soul shall suffer hunger.
 The lips of knowledge is a precious jewel.
 I and my cousin are requested to attend.
 Can only say that such is my belief.
 This is different from the conscience being made to feel.
 Here is ground for their leaving the world with peace.
 A man is the noblest work of creation.
 Of all other crimes willful murder is the most atrocious
 The tribes whom I visited, are partially civilized.
 From hence I conclude they are in error.
 The girls' books are neater than the boys.
 I intended to have transcribed it.
 Shall a character made up of the very worst passions, pass under the
 name of a gentleman ?
 Rhoda ran in, and told how Peter stood before the gate.
 What is latitude and longitude ?
 Cicero was more eloquent than any Roman.
 Who dares apologize for Pizarro,—who is but another name for rapacity ?

LESSON IV.

Tell me whether you will do it or no.
 After the most straitest sect, I lived a Pharisee.
 We have no more but five loaves and two fishes.
 I know not who it was who did it.
 Doubt not, little though there be,
 But I'll cast a crumb to thee.
 This rule is the best which can be given.
 I have never seen no other way.
 These are poor amends for the men and treasures which we have lost.
 Dost thou know them boys ?
 This is a part of my uncle's father's estate.
 Many people never learn to speak correct.
 Some people are rash, and others timid ; those apprehend too much,
 these too little.
 Is it lawful for us to give tribute to Cæsar or no ?
 It was not worth while preserving any permanent enmity.
 I no sooner saw my face in it, but I was startled at the shortness of it.
 Every person is answerable for their own conduct.
 They are men that scorn a mean action, and who will exert themselves
 to serve you.
 I do not recollect ever having paid it.
 The stoics taught that all crimes were equal.
 Every one of these theories are now exploded.

Either of these four will answer.

There is no situation where he would be happy.

The boy has been detected in stealing, that you thought so clever.

I will meet thee there if thee please.

He is not so sick but what he can laugh.

These clothes does not fit me.

The audience was all very attentive.

Wert thou some star, which from the ruin'd roof
Of shak'd Olympus by mischance didst fall !—*Milton.*

LESSON V.

Was the master, or many of the scholars, in the room ?

His father's and mother's consent was asked.

Whom is he supposed to be ?

He is an old venerable man.

It was then my purpose to have visited Sicily.

It is to the learner only, and he that is in doubt, that this assistance is recommended.

There are not the least hope of his recovery.

Anger and impatience is always unreasonable.

In his letters, there are not only correctness but elegance.

Opportunity to do good is the highest preferment which a noble mind desires.

The year when he died is not mentioned.

Had I knew it, I should not have went.

Was it thee that spoke to me ?

The house is situated pleasantly.

He did it as private as he possibly could.

Subduing our passions is the noblest of conquests.

James is more diligent than thee.

Words interwove with sighs found out their way.

He appears to be diffident excessively.

The number of our days are with thee.

Like as a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him.—*Psalms ciii.*

The circumstances of this case is different.

Well for us, if some such other men should rise !

A man that is young in years may be old in hours, if he have lost no time.

The chief captain, fearing lest Paul should have been pulled in pieces of them, commanded the soldiers to go down, and to take them by force from among them.—*Acts xxiii.*

Nay, weep not, gentle Eros ; there is left us
Ourselves to end ourselves.—*Shakspeare.*

V.—ARRANGEMENT.

The **arrangement** of words is an important part of Syntax, especially in the English language, in which, in consequence of the paucity of its inflections, the sense is made to depend to a very great extent upon the order of the terms.

This has been, in great part, already considered in the preceding rules and observations, but a few additional hints and illustrations are here inserted.

1. The subject noun or pronoun naturally comes before the verb ; and the object or attribute, after it.

For cases of inversion of the subject and verb, see Observation 1, Rule VI.

Inversions of any of these are generally controlled by the law of emphasis, which requires an unusual position in the sentence for a word, phrase, or clause, which is to be made prominent.

The following sentences will serve for illustration :—

“ *Into the valley of death* rode the six hundred.”

“ All *bloodless* lay the untrodden snow.”

“ *Victories* indeed they were.”

“ *Silver* and *gold* have I none.”

“ When *Thebes* Epaminondas rears again.”

2. On the same principle, the adjective which, in the natural order, precedes the noun, may be made to follow it, thus :—

“ Across the meadows, *fresh* and *green*.”

Also when the adjective is encumbered with one or more adjuncts, thus :—

“ To whom the goblin *full* of wrath replied.”

“ A man *wise* in his own conceit can learn but little.”

3. The relative should be as close as possible to its antecedent, and no other word should intervene that might be mistaken for the antecedent.

The following are examples of such an ambiguity :—

“ It was *David*, the father of Solomon, *who* slew Goliath.”

“ Why should *he* keep a horse *that* cannot ride ?

“ All *evils* here contaminate the mind,
That opulence departed leaves behind.”

4. Adverbs, and all adverbial expressions, should be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect.

This is illustrated under the rule for adverbs. The principle is of general application to all classes of adjuncts, the position of which should be such as to show, with the greatest possible clearness, to what words they belong. The following sentence illustrates this principle, in the correct position of every adjunct:—"But *now* ye seek to kill me, a man that hath told you the truth which I have heard of God: this did not Abraham."—*John* viii.

The following is a comprehensive canon for the correction of miscellaneous errors in construction not specifically referred to in the foregoing rules and observations.

General Rule.

In the formation of sentences, the consistency and adaptation of all the words should be carefully observed; and a regular, clear, and correspondent construction should be preserved throughout.

OBS.—In the foregoing pages, the principles of *syntax* or *construction*, are supposed to be pretty fully developed; but there may be in composition many errors of such a nature that no rule of grammar can show *what should be substituted*. The greater the inaccuracy, the more difficult the correction; because the sentence may require a change throughout. Sometimes the faults may be *rhetorical* rather than *grammatical*; that is, they may have no reference to relation, agreement, government, or arrangement, but may be due to an improper selection of words or phrases. In that case, the application of other principles than those previously explained in syntax may be required.

False Syntax.

EXAMPLE.—If I can contribute to your and my country's glory.

FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *your* has not a clear and regular construction. But, according to the General Rule, "In the formation of sentences, the consistency and adaptation of all the words should be carefully observed; and a regular, clear, and correspondent construction should be preserved throughout." The sentence having a double meaning, may be corrected in two ways: thus, If I can contribute to *our* country's glory—or, If I can contribute to your glory and that of my country.

Is there, then, more than one true religion?

The laws of Lycurgus but substituted insensibility to enjoyment.—*Goldsmith*,

Rain is seldom or ever seen at Lima.

The young bird raising its open mouth for food, is a natural indication of corporeal want.

There is much of truth in the observation of Ascham.

Adopting the doctrine which he had been taught.

This library exceeded half a million volumes.

The Coptic alphabet was one of the latest formed of any.

Many evidences exist of the proneness of men to vice.

To perceive nothing, or not to perceive, is the same.

The king of France or England was to be the umpire.

He may be said to have saved the life of a citizen ; and, consequently, entitled to the reward.

The men had made inquiry for Simon's house, and stood before the gate.—*Acts x.*

Give no more trouble than you can possibly help.

The art of printing being then unknown, was a circumstance in some respects favorable to freedom of the pen.

Another passion which the present age is apt to run into, is to make children learn all things.—*Goldsmith.*

He is always the severest censor on the merits of another, who has the least worth of his own.

Nor was Philip wanting in his endeavors to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men in Greece.—*Goldsmith.*

The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about and halted, with the river on their backs.—*Id.*

Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants ; and riches, upon enjoying our superfluities.

To obtain a correct style requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire.

That brother should not war with brother,
And worry and devour each other.—*Cowper.*

Such is the refuge of our youth and age ;
The first from hope, the last from vacancy.—*Byron.*

Triumphant Sylla ! couldst thou then divine,
By aught than Romans Rome should thus be laid ?—*Id.*

VI.—EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

Praxis V.—Syntactical.

In the Fifth Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to analyze the sentence according to the method indicated under each example; to distinguish the parts of speech and their classes; to mention their modifications in order; to point out their relation, agreement, or government; and to apply the rule of Syntax. He should then be required to construct five additional sentences of the same character.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

“To be continually subject to the breath of slander will tarnish the purest reputation.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence.

The subject is the complex infinitive phrase, *to be continually subject to the breath of slander*; the predicate verb is *will tarnish*; the object is *reputation*.

The principal part of the phrase is *to be*, and its adjuncts are *continually*, and the indefinite attribute, *subject*, which is modified by the complex adverbial phrase, *to the breath of slander*; the principal part of this phrase is *breath*, which is modified by *the*, and the simple adjective phrase, *of slander*.

The verb has no adjuncts; the adjuncts of the object are *the* and *purest*.

PARSING.—*To be* is an irregular neuter verb, from *be, was, being, been*; found in the infinitive mood and present tense, and is, with the phrase of which it is the principal part, the subject of the verb *will tarnish*; according to Note II., under Rule VIII., which says, “The infinitive mood, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes the subject to a verb.”

Continually is an adverb of time, and relates to the verb *to be*; according to the rule which says, Adverbs relate, etc.

Subject is a common adjective, of the positive degree, compared only by means of the adverbs, *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*; it is taken abstractly with the infinitive *to be*; according to Exception 2d, under Rule II., which says, “With the infinitive or a participle denoting being or action in the abstract, an adjective is sometimes also taken abstractly.”

To is a preposition, and shows the relation between *subject* and *breath*; according to the rule, which says, Prepositions show the relation of things.

The is the definite article, and relates to *breath*; according to the rule, which says, etc.

Breath is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, and is governed by *to*; according to the rule, which says, etc.

Will tarnish is a regular active-transitive verb, from *tarnish, tarnished, tarnishing, tarnished*; found in the indicative mood, first-future tense, third person, and singular number; and agrees with its subject, the infinitive phrase, *to be*, etc.; according to Note II., under Rule VIII., which says, “The infinitive mood, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes the subject of a verb; a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person singular.”

Purest is a common adjective of the superlative degree, compared, *pure, purer, purest*; it relates to *reputation*; according to the rule, which says, etc.

Reputation is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case; and is governed by *will tarnish*; according to the rule, which says, etc.

Phrases.

I.—Subject Phrases.

To train citizens is not the work of a day.

To be happy without the approval of conscience is impossible.

To have remained calm under such provocation, was a proof of remarkable self-control.

To be at once a rake and glory in the character, discovers a bad disposition and a bad heart.

To meet danger boldly is better than to wait for it.

To be satisfied with the acquittal of one's own conscience, is the mark of a great mind.

To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect of character.

To spring up from bed at the first moment of waking, is easy enough for people habituated to it.

To laugh were want of goodness and of grace,
And to be grave exceeds all power of face.

II.—Object Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Can a youth who refuses to yield obedience to his parents, expect to become a good or a wise man?”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex interrogative sentence.

The principal clause is, *Can a youth expect to become a good or wise man?* The dependent clause is, *who refuses to yield obedience to his parents.* The connective is *who*.

The subject noun of the principal clause is *youth*; the predicate verb is *expect*; the object is the infinitive phrase, *to become a good or a wise man*.

The adjuncts of the subject noun are *a* and the dependent clause; the verb has no adjuncts; the principal part of the phrase is *to become*; and its adjunct is the attribute *man*, which refers to the subject *youth*, and is modified by the adjuncts *a good*, and *a wise*, connected by *or*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *who*; the predicate verb is *refuses*; the object is the complex infinitive phrase, *to yield obedience to his parents.* The principal part of the phrase is *to yield*, its adjuncts are the object, *obedience*, and the simple adverbial phrase, *to his parents*; the principal part of this phrase is *parents*, and its adjunct is *his*.

If you desire to be free from sin, avoid temptation.

By the faults of others, wise men learn how to correct their own.

In reasoning, avoid blending arguments confusedly together that are of a separate nature.

He who refuses to learn how to avoid evil, may properly be deemed guilty of it.

He did not oppose his son's going to sea, because he desired to remove him from the evil influence of bad company.

Never expect to be able to govern others, unless you have learned how to govern yourself.

He who loves to survey the works of nature, can anticipate, wherever he may be, finding sources of the purest enjoyment.

He who attempts to please every body, will soon become an object of general indifference or contempt.

None but the virtuous dare hope in bad circumstances.

If ever any author deserved to be called an *original*, it was Shakspeare.

III.—Attribute Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“The predominant passion of Franklin seems to have been the love of the useful.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence.

The subject is *passion*; the predicate verb is *seems*; the attribute is the infinitive phrase, *to have been the love of the useful*.

—The adjuncts of the subject are *the*, *predominant*, and the simple adjective phrase *of Franklin*; the predicate has no adjuncts; the principal part of the attribute phrase is *to have been*, and its adjunct is the attribute *love*, which refers to the subject *passion*, and is modified by *the*, and the simple adjective phrase, *of the useful*:

[*To have been* is used as an adjective, and relates to *passion*.]

✓ The fire of our minds is immortal, and not to be quenched.

Universal benevolence and patriotic zeal appear to have been the motives of all his actions.

3 Children should be permitted to be children, and not deprived of amusements proper for their age.

Was he not to live the best part of his life over again, and once more be all that he ever had been?

5 Criminals are observed to grow more anxious as their trial approaches.

6 Knowledge is not to be received inertly like the influences of the atmosphere, by a mere residence at the place of instruction.

7 The great purpose of poetry is to carry the mind above and beyond the beaten, dusty, weary walks of ordinary life; to lift it into a purer element; and to breathe into it more profound and generous emotions.

He seems to have made an injudicious choice, though he is esteemed a sensible man.

Integrity is of the greatest importance in every situation of life.

To be useful in some degree is within the means of every one.

To discover the true nature of comets, has hitherto proved beyond the power of science.

His conduct was, under the circumstances, in very bad taste.

The merchant was to have sailed for Europe last week.

IV.—Adjective Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence.

The subject is *I*; the predicate verb is *began*; the object is the complex infinitive phrase, *to figure to myself the miseries of confinement*. The principal part of the phrase is *to figure*, the adjuncts of which are the simple adverbial phrase, *to myself*, and the object *miseries*, which is modified by *the* and the simple adjective phrase, *of confinement*.

The adjunct of the subject is the complex adjective phrase *leaning my head upon my hand*, the principal part of which is *leaning*, and its adjuncts, the object *head*, modified by *my*, and the simple adverbial phrase, *upon my hand*, the principal part of which is *hand*, and its adjunct, *my*.

- 1 Life bears us on like the stream of a mighty river.
- 2 Augustus had no lawful authority to make a change in the Roman constitution.
- 3 A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a guard against committing them.
- 4 The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny.
- 5 Envy, surrounded on all sides by the brightness of another's prosperity, like the scorpion, confined within the circle of fire, stings itself to death.
- 6 The requisites for a first-rate actor demand a combination of talents and accomplishments not easily to be found.
- 7 The conflicts of the world were not to take place altogether * on the tented field; but ideas, leaping from the world's awakened intellect, and burning all over with indestructible life, were to be marshaled against principalities and powers.
- 8 The ship, unable to pursue her way,
Tossing about, at her own guidance lay.

* *Altogether* is here an adverb relating to the adverbial phrase, *on the tented field*. (See Obs. 4, under Rule III.)

V.—Adverbial Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“We live in the past by a knowledge of its history, and in the future by hope and anticipation.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a compound declarative sentence, abbreviated in form, and consisting of the two coördinate clauses, *We live in the past by a knowledge of its history*, and *(we live) in the future by hope and anticipation*, connected by *and*.

The subject of each clause is *we*, and the predicate verb is *live*. The adjuncts of the verb in the first clause are the simple adverbial phrase, *in the past*, and the complex adverbial phrase, *by a knowledge of its history*; the principal part is *knowledge*, and its adjuncts are *a* and the simple adjective phrase, *of its history*. [The adjuncts of the verb in the second clause are of the same character, and may be analyzed in a similar manner.]

- 1 At that hour, O how vain was all sublunary happiness!
- 2 Abstain from injuring others, if you wish to be in safety.
- 3 The public are often deceived by false appearances and extravagant pretensions.
- 4 Day and night yield us contrary blessings; and, at the same time, assist each other, by giving fresh lustre to the delights of both.
- 5 Man's happiness or misery is, in a great measure, put into his own hands.
- 6 [Has not sloth, or pride, or ill temper, or sinful passion, misled you from the path of sound and wise conduct?]
- 7 Man was created to search for truth, to love the beautiful, to desire the good, and to do the best.
- 8 Representation and taxation should always go hand in hand.
- 9 The statement which he made at first, he reiterated, again and again, without the least variation.
- 10 Jacob loved all his sons, but he loved Joseph the best.
- 11 There is very often more happiness in the cottage of the peasant than in the palace of the king.

VI.—Explanatory Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“It is useless to expatiate upon the beauties of nature to one who is blind.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The principal clause is, *It is useless to expatiate upon the beauties of nature to one*, and the dependent clause is, *who is blind*. The connective is *who*.

The subject of the principal clause is *it*; the predicate verb is *is*; and the attribute is *useless*.

The adjunct of the subject is the complex explanatory phrase, *to expatiate upon the beauties of nature to one*. The principal part of the phrase is *to expatiate*, the adjuncts of which are the complex adverbial phrase, *upon the beauties of nature*, and the simple adverbial phrase *to one*. The principal part of the former is *beauties*, and its adjuncts are *the* and the simple adjective phrase *of nature*; the principal part of the latter is *one*, and its adjunct is the dependent adjective clause *who is blind*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *who*; the predicate verb, *is*; and the attribute, *blind*; each without adjuncts.

It is always profitable to know our own faults and infirmities.

It is the characteristic of a pedant to make an idle display of his learning.

If what I say be not true, it is easy to convict me of falsehood.

It is very often impossible to estimate the extent of injury which a careless word will produce.

How happy had it been for him to have died in that sickness, when all Italy was putting up vows and prayers for his safety!

It is certainly in the power of a sensible and well-educated mother to inspire such tastes and propensities in her son as shall nearly decide the destiny of the future man.

It is impossible to read a page in Plato, Tully, or any of the other eminent moralists of antiquity, without being a greater and better man for it.

If we would improve our minds by conversation, it is a great happiness to be acquainted with persons wiser than ourselves.

If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest.

It is a miserable state of mind to have few things to desire, and many things to fear.

VII.—Independent Phrases.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“This proposition being admitted, I now state my argument.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence.

The subject is *I*; the predicate verb is *state*; the object is *argument*.

The subject has no adjuncts; the adjunct of the verb is *now*; the adjunct of the object is *my*.

This proposition being admitted is an independent phrase; the principal part is *proposition*, and its adjuncts are *this* and *being admitted*.

EXAMPLE II.

“One day, I was guilty of an action, which, to say the least, was in very bad taste.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The principal clause is, *One day I was guilty of an action*; and the dependent clause is, *which, to say the least, was in very bad taste*. The connective is *which*.

The subject of the principal clause is *I*; the predicate verb is *was*; and the attribute is *guilty*.

The adjunct of the verb is the adverbial phrase (prepositional in form), (*on*) *one day*; the adjunct of the attribute is the adverbial phrase *of an action*. Of the latter phrase, *action* is the principal part, and its adjuncts are *an* and the dependent clause.

The subject of the dependent clause is *which*; the predicate verb is *was*; and the attribute, the adjective phrase *in very bad taste*.

Neither has any adjuncts; the principal part of the attribute phrase is *taste*; *bad* being its primary, and *very* its secondary adjunct.

To say the least, is an independent phrase of the infinitive form. The principal part is *to say*, and its adjunct, the object *least*, modified by *the*.

They being absent, we cannot come to a determination.

There being much obscurity in the case, he refuses to decide upon it.

To be plain with you, your conduct is very much to be censured.

Fathers! Senators of Rome! the arbiters of nations! to you I fly for refuge.

The baptism of John; was it from heaven, or of men?

Generally speaking, the life of all truly great men has been a life of intense and incessant labor.

To give one instance more, and then I will have done with this rambling discourse.—*Hazlitt*.

The great utility of knowledge and religion being thus apparent, it is highly incumbent upon us to pay a studious attention to them in our youth.

A shoe coming loose from the fore-foot of the thill-horse, at the beginning of the ascent of Mount Taurina, the postilion dismounted, twisted the shoe off, and put it in his pocket.—*Sterne*.

Want, and incurable disease, (fell pair!)

On hopeless multitudes remorseless seize

At once; and make a refuge of the grave.

✓Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,

Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking:

Dream of battle-fields no more,

Days of danger, nights of waking.

Clauses.

VIII.—Subject Clauses.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“That it is our duty to obey the laws of the country in which we live, does not admit of question.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The subject is the dependent clause, *That it is our duty to obey the laws of the country in which we live*; the predicate verb is *does admit*.

The adjuncts of the verb are *not* and the phrase *of question*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *it*; the predicate verb is *is*; and the attribute is *duty*.

The adjunct of the subject is the complex explanatory phrase, *to obey the laws of the country in which we live*; the adjunct of the attribute is *our*.

The principal part of the explanatory phrase is *to obey*, which is modified by the object *laws*, the adjuncts of which are *the* and the complex phrase, *of the country in which we live*. The principal part of this phrase is *country*, and its adjuncts are *the* and the simple adjective clause, *in which we live*. The subject of the clause is *we*; the predicate verb is *live*, which is modified by the simple adverbial phrase *in which*.

OBS.—It will be perceived from the example given in this exercise, that a complex sentence may be analyzed by treating it as a whole, pointing out the subject, predicate, etc., and analyzing the dependent clause in its proper place, as one of the principal parts, or an adjunct to either; instead of dividing the sentence immediately into the principal and dependent clauses, explaining their connection, and then analyzing them separately, as in the previous exercises. The latter method is preferable for beginners, but for advanced scholars should give place to the other, which is more logical, and easier for intricate sentences.

1 That the government of our desires is essential to the enjoyment of true liberty, is a truth never to be forgotten.

2 That it is glorious to die for one's country, is a sentiment uniformly cherished by all good men.

3 At what period the poems of Homer were composed, has not been positively ascertained.

4 Who was the author of the Letters of Phalaris, has been the subject of very ingenious and learned discussion.

5 That an author's work is the mirror of his mind, is a position that has led to very false conclusions.

6 Why a man with so excellent an education, and surrounded with so many inducements to a virtuous life, should have fallen into habits of vice and dissipation, is inexplicable.

7 That truth finally must prevail over error, and virtue be triumphant in a struggle with vice, are highly cherished sentiments among mankind.

8 How he was to extricate his army from so dangerous a position, baffled all conjecture.

9 Whether Columbus was the first discoverer of America or not, is a question among historians.

10 What can be more strange than that an ounce weight should balance hundreds of pounds by the intervention of a few bars of thin iron?

IX.—Object Clauses.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Children should know that it is their duty to honor their parents, to ask advice of them, and to observe their wishes.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The subject is *children*; the predicate verb is *should know*; the object is the dependent clause, *That it is their duty*, etc. *That* is the connective.

The subject of the dependent clause is *it*; the predicate verb is *is*; the attribute is *duty*.

The adjuncts of the subject are the explanatory phrases, *to honor their parents, to ask advice of them, and to observe their wishes*.

He knew that solicitations or remonstrances would avail little with the companions of his enterprise.

Those who are skilled in the extraction and preparation of metals, declare that iron is everywhere to be found.

Columbus felt that there was a continent to be discovered, and he discovered it.

The authors of the American Revolution believed that they were in the service of their own, and of all future generations.

It is interesting to notice how some minds seem almost to create themselves, springing up under every disadvantage, and working their solitary but irresistible way through a thousand obstacles.

Any man who attends to what passes within himself, may easily discern that the human character is a very complicated system.

How can he exalt his thoughts to anything great or noble, who only believes that, after a short term on this stage of existence, he is to sink into oblivion, and to lose his consciousness forever?

See, Aspasio, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind.

The majority of the assembly wisely considered that to decline a cessation, would be to refute all their professions of loyalty.

Haply some hoary-headed swain may say,

“Oft have we seen him at the peep of dawn,

Brushing, with hasty steps, the dews away,

To meet the sun upon the upland lawn.”

X.—Object Clauses. (INFINITIVE.)

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Let the child learn what is appropriate for his years.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex imperative sentence. The subject is *thou* (understood); the predicate verb is *let*; the object is the infinitive clause, *the child learn*, etc.

The subject noun of the dependent clause is *child*; the predicate verb is *(to) learn*;

the object is *that* (comprehended in the double relative *what*, equivalent to *that* which).

The adjunct of the object is the simple adjective clause, *which is appropriate for his years*.

The subject of this clause is *which*; the predicate verb, *is*; the attribute, *appropriate*, modified by the simple adverbial phrase, *for his years*.

Thou think'st it folly to be wise too soon.

In this melancholy state he commanded messengers to recall his eldest son, Abouzaid, from the army.

Graves describes the steps by which Shenstone made the Leasowes become what it at last was.

Let us all, in our mourning attire, and accompanied by our children, go and entreat Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, to intercede with her son for our common country.

Madame Roland heard herself sentenced to death with the air of one who saw in her condemnation merely her title to immortality.

Goldsmith said to Johnson very wittily and very justly, "If you were to write a fable about little fishes, doctor, you would make the little fishes talk like whales."

The curiosity of the Caliph being awakened to know the cause of his despair, he ordered Mezrour to knock at the door, which being opened, they pleaded the privilege of strangers to enter for rest and refreshment.

See some strange comfort every state attend,
And pride bestow'd on all, a common friend :
See some fit passion every age supply ;
Hope travels through, nor quits us when we die.
On what foundation stands the warrior's pride,
How just his hopes, let Swedish Charles decide.

XI.—Attribute Clauses.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"The truth is, that the most elaborate and manifold apparatus of instruction can impart nothing of importance to the passive and inert mind."

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is *the truth*; the predicate verb is *is*; the attribute is the dependent clause, *The most elaborate and manifold apparatus*, etc. The connective is *that*.

The subject noun of the dependent clause is *apparatus*; the predicate verb is *can impart*; the object is *nothing*. The adjuncts of the subject noun are *the*, *elaborate*, *manifold*, and *of instruction*; *most* is an adjunct of *elaborate* and *manifold*; the adjunct of the verb is the adverbial phrase *to the passive and inert mind*; the principal part of which is *mind*, and its adjuncts *the*, and *passive and inert*; the adjunct of the object is the simple adjective phrase, *of importance*.

The crying sin of all governments is, that they meddle injuriously with human affairs, and obstruct the processes of nature by excessive legislation.

One of the most useful effects of action is, that it renders repose agreeable.

The only advantage which, in the voyage of life, the cautious had above the negligent, was, that they sunk later, and more suddenly.

The characteristic peculiarity of the "Pilgrim's Progress" is, that it is the only work of its kind which possesses a strong human interest.

The proper end of instruction is, not that the scholar should be able to repeat the thoughts of others, but that he should have the power to think correctly for himself.

The physician's directions were, that the patient should travel to the South, that he should avoid excitement, and that he should be careful in diet.

XII.—Adjective Clauses.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"Whoever yields to temptation, debases himself with a debasement from which he can never arise."

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The subject nominative is *he* (comprehended in the double relative *whoever*); the predicate verb is *debases*; the object is *himself*.

The adjunct of the subject nominative is the simple adjective clause, *who yields to temptation*; the adjunct of the predicate is the complex phrase, *with a debasement from which he can never arise*. The principal part of the phrase is *debasement*, and its adjuncts are *a* and the simple adjective clause, *from which he can never arise*.

The chief misfortunes that befall us in life, can be traced to some vices and follies which we have committed.

Every society has a right to prescribe for itself the terms on which its members shall be admitted.

There is no foundation for the popular doctrine, that a state may flourish by arts and crimes.

It is necessary to combat vigilantly that favorite idea of lively ignorance, that study is an enemy to originality.

Most of the troubles which we meet with in the world, arise from an irritable temper, or from improper conduct.

Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse, was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged.

He that has light within his own clear breast,
May sit in the center, and enjoy bright day;
But he that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts,
Benighted walks under the mid-day sun.

No flocks that range the valley, free,
 To slaughter I condemn ;
 Taught by that power that pities me,
 I learn to pity them.

XIII.—Adverbial Clauses.

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Education, when it works upon a noble mind, draws out to view many latent virtues and perfections, which, without its aid, would never be able to make their appearance.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex declarative sentence.

The principal clause is, *Education, when it works upon a noble mind, draws out to view many latent virtues and perfections*; and the dependent is, *Which, without its aid, would never be able to make their appearance*. The connective is *which*.

The first is a complex member; the subject is *education*; the predicate verb is *draws*; the objects are *virtues and perfections*.

The adjuncts of the verb are the adverbial clause, *when it works upon a noble mind, out*, and the simple adverbial phrase *to view*; the adjuncts of the objects are *many* and *latent*.

The subject of the adverbial clause is *it*, the predicate verb is *works*. The adjuncts of the verb are *when*, and the adverbial phrase, *upon a noble mind*. The connective is *when*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *which*; the predicate verb is *would be*; the attribute is *able*.

The adjuncts of the predicate are the phrase, *without its aid*, and *never*; the adjunct of the attribute is the simple adverbial phrase, *to make their appearance*, of which *to make* is the principal part, and its adjunct the object *appearance*, modified by *their*.

When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune, affects us, the sincerity of friendship is proved.

When the Creator had finished his labor on our planet, his last and noblest work being man, he conferred on him a partnership in his labors.

Loose conversation operates on the soul, as poison does on the body.

When Education had proceeded, in this manner, to the part of the mountain where the declivity began to grow craggy, she resigned her charge to two powers of superior aspect.

While I was musing on this miserable scene, my protector called out to me, “Remember, Theodore, and be wise, and let not Habit prevail against thee.”

While this thought passed over my mind, I lost sight of the remotest star, and the last glimmering of light was quenched in utter darkness. The agonies of despair every moment increased, as every moment augmented my distance from the last habitable world. I reflected with intolerable anguish, that, when ten thousand thousand years

had carried me beyond the reach of all but that Power who fills infinitude, I should still look forward into an immense abyss of darkness, through which I should still drive without succor and without society, farther and farther still, forever and forever.

XIV.—Explanatory Clauses

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

“Why is it that to man have been given passions which he cannot tame, and which sink him below the brute?”

ANALYSIS.—This is a complex interrogative sentence.

The subject is *it*; the predicate verb is *is*; the adjunct of the subject is the complex explanatory clause, *to man have been given passions which he cannot tame, and which sink him below the brute*; the connective is *that*: the adjunct of the predicate is *why*.

The subject noun of the explanatory clause is *passions*; the predicate is *have been given*. The adjuncts of the subject are the simple adjective clauses, *which he cannot tame, and which sink him below the brute*. [Each to be analyzed as in previous exercises.]

It was the fate of Dr. Bentley, that every work, executed or projected by him, should be assailed.

It is surprising in what countless swarms the bees have overspread the far West, within but a moderate number of years.

To tell you the *why* and the *wherefore* would take too long; suffice it to say, that they hate us with a deadly hatred.

Seeing these, I at length comprehended the meaning of those terrible words, “Must we kill them both?”

It might be expected, that humanity itself would prevent them from breaking into the last retreat of the unfortunate.

It is an exquisite and beautiful thing in our nature, that when the heart is touched and softened by some tranquil happiness or affectionate feeling, the memory of the dead comes over it most powerfully and irresistibly.

Interesting it is to observe how certainly all deep feelings agree in this, that they seek for solitude, and are nursed by solitude.

Is it because foreigners are in a condition to set our malice at defiance, that we are willing to contract engagements of friendship?

See! and confess, one comfort still must rise;

’Tis this, though man’s a fool, yet God is wise.

Better for us, perhaps, it might appear,

Were there all harmony, all virtue here;

That never air nor ocean felt the wind,

That never passion discomposed the mind.

XV.—Parenthetical Clauses.**EXAMPLE ANALYZED.**

“The virtuous man, it has been beautifully said, proceeds without constraint in the path of his duty.”

ANALYSIS.—This is a compound declarative sentence; composed of the simple clause, *The virtuous man proceeds without constraint in the path of his duty*, and the parenthetical clause, *It has been beautifully said*. [Let the pupil analyze each clause as in the preceding exercises.]

OBS.—Sentences of this form may often be analyzed by considering the parenthetical clause, the principal one, and the rest of the sentence dependent upon it. The mode of analysis, indicated in the example, is, however, preferable; as, although the parenthetical clause is united in construction with the other part of the sentence, it is not necessary to complete the sense.

How dangerous soever idleness may be, are there not pleasures, it may be said, which attend it?

“I leave my second son, Andrew,” said the expiring miser, “my whole estate; and desire him to be frugal.”

“Go forth,” it had been said to Elijah, “and stand upon the mount before the Lord.”

“I think, boys,” said the schoolmaster, when the clock struck twelve, “that I shall give you an extra half-holiday this afternoon.”

“You remember my garden, Henry,” whispered the old man, anxious to rouse him, for a dullness seemed gathering upon the child, “and how pleasant it used to be in the evening-time?”

“Therefore,” said he, “hath it in all confidence been ordered by the Commons of Great Britain, that I impeach Warren Hastings of high crimes and misdemeanors.”

“Oh, no,” said the Earth, “thou shalt not lie,
Neglected and lone, on my lap to die,
Thou fine and delicate child of the sky.”

No further seek his merits to disclose,
Or draw his frailties from their dread abode,
(There they alike in trembling hope repose,)
The bosom of his Father, and his God.

Compound Sentences.**XVI.—Independent Clauses.**

OBS. 1.—In analyzing compound sentences, at this stage of the pupil's progress, the *leading clause* should be distinguished from the *subordinate*

clause. It must, however, be understood, that the dependence of the latter upon the former, is *logical*, not *grammatical*, differing in this respect altogether from the relation of the *principal* and the *dependent* clause of a complex sentence, which is purely grammatical, since the latter is an adjunct, or used as one of the principal parts, in the principal clause.

OBS. 2.—Some clauses are simply connected without logical or grammatical dependence. These may be called *co-ordinate clauses*.

In the following examples of analysis, for the purpose of abbreviation, and in order to furnish the pupil with a ready method of clearly representing, in written exercises, the parts of a sentence and their relations, the *compound clauses* or *members* are marked by capitals; the *simple clauses*, by numerals; and the *phrases*, by small letters. When these are all written out in the order in which they occur, care being taken to unite in brackets dependent clauses contained in the same sentence or member, the character and composition of the sentence analyzed will be exhibited.

According to this mode of representation, a simple sentence would, of course, have no numerical or literal designation; 1 would indicate a complex sentence with a simple dependent clause; 1, 2, a compound sentence, consisting of two simple clauses, but if enclosed in brackets thus [1, 2], a complex sentence containing two dependent clauses; A, 1, 2, B, 3, 4, a compound sentence composed of two compound members; but A, [1, 2], B, [3, 4], a compound sentence composed of two complex members, each containing two dependent clauses; A, 1, B, 2, a compound sentence composed of two complex members, each containing one dependent clause; A, 1, 2, B, 3, a compound sentence composed of a compound and a complex member; A, 1, B, 2, 3, a compound sentence containing a complex and a compound member; A, B, 1, a complex sentence containing a complex dependent member, which itself contains a complex dependent member; and so on.

This mode of presenting to the eye the general conformation of a sentence, its members, clauses, etc., in their order and, partially, their dependence, will be found easy after the previous practice, and cannot fail to be useful. In the forms of analysis given, S. stands for the subject noun or pronoun without its adjuncts; P., for the predicate verb; O., for the object; Att., for the attribute; Ad., for adjuncts.

It must be borne in mind by the pupil that the *complete subject* consists of the subject noun or pronoun and all its adjuncts; and the *complete predicate*, of the predicate verb and all its adjuncts, including the object and attribute;—that, in fact, there are but two parts in every sentence, each of which is separable into one primary part and adjuncts.

EXAMPLES ANALYZED.

1. "Let him that hastens to be rich, take heed lest he suddenly become poor."

ANALYSIS.—Compound imperative sentence, consisting of

A. (Leading) *Let him that hastens to be rich, take heed*;

1. (Subordinate) *He suddenly become poor*. Connective, *lest*.

A. Complex imperative member.

S. *Thou* (understood); P. *let*; O. *him that hastens to be rich take heed*. (B.)

B. Complex infinitive member.

S. *him*; P. *take*; O. *heed*.

Ad. S. *that hastens to be rich*. (2.)

2. Simple adjective clause.

S. *that*; P. *hastens*; Ad. P. *to be rich*. (a.)

- a. Simple adverbial phrase.
Prin. part, *to be* ; Ad. *rich* (indirect attribute).
- 1. Simple clause.
S. *he* ; P. *become* ; Att. *poor* ; Ad. P. *suddenly*.

2. "Say not thou, 'I will recompense evil;' but wait on the Lord, and he shall save thee."

ANALYSIS.—Compound imperative sentence, consisting of two co-ordinate members :

- A. *Say not thou*; "I will recompense evil."
- B. *Wait on the Lord, and he shall save thee.* Con. *but*.
- A. Complex imperative member.
S. *thou* ; P. *say* ; O. *I will recompense evil* (1) ; Ad. P. *not*.
- 1. Simple declarative clause.
S. *I* ; P. *will recompense* ; O. *evil*.
- B. Compound imperative member.
2. *Wait on the Lord.*
3. *He shall save thee* ; connective, *and*.
- 2. Simple imperative clause.
S. *Thou* (understood) ; P. *wait* ; Ad. P. *on the Lord.* (a.)
- a. Simple adverbial phrase.
Prin. part, *Lord* ; Ad. *the*.
- e. Simple declarative clause.
S. *He* ; P. *shall save* ; O. *thee*.

If thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat ; if he be thirsty, give him water to drink.

If the mind were left uncultivated, though nothing else should find entrance, vice certainly would.

While riotous indulgence enervates both the body and the mind, purity and virtue heighten all the powers of human fruition.

If the King were present, Cleon, there would be no need of my answering to what thou hast just proposed.

He seems to have made an injudicious choice, though he is esteemed a sensible man.

The person he chanced to see, was, to appearance, an old, sordid, blind man ; but, upon his following him from place to place, he at last found, by his own confession, that he was Plutus, the god of riches.

I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death.

Let any one resolve always to do right *now*, leaving *then* to do as it can, and if he were to live to the age of Methuselah, he would never do wrong ; but the common error is to resolve to act right after breakfast, or after dinner, or to-morrow morning, or *next time* ; but *now*, *just now*, *this once*, we must go on the same as ever.

It seems easier to do right to-morrow than to-day, merely because we forget, that when to-morrow comes, *then* will be *now*.

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play ?

Inspiring thought of rapture yet to be!
 The tears of love were hopeless but for thee!
 If in that frame no deathless spirit dwell,
 If that faint murmur be the last farewell,
 If fate unite the faithful but to part,
 Why is their memory sacred to the heart?

XVII.—Miscellaneous Sentences.

EXAMPLES ANALYZED.

1. "Rasselas could not catch the fugitives, with his utmost efforts; but, resolving to weary by perseverance him whom he could not surpass in speed, he pressed on till the foot of the mountain stopped his course."—*Johnson*.

ANALYSIS.—Compound declarative sentence:

1. *Rasselas could not catch the fugitive with his utmost efforts*;

A. *Resolving to weary..... course*. Connective, *but*.

1. Simple declarative clause.

S. *Rasselas*; P. *could catch*; O. *fugitive*.

Ad. P. *not, with his utmost efforts* (a); Ad. O. *the*.

a. Simple adverbial phrase.

Prin. part, *efforts*; Ad. *his* and *utmost*.

A. Compound declarative member.

S. *He*; P. *pressed*.

Ad. S. *resolving to weary by perseverance him.....speed* (b);

Ad. P. *on, and till the foot of the mountain stopped his course* (2).

b. Complex adjective phrase.

Prin. part, *resolving*; Ad. *to weary..... speed* (c).

c. Complex objective phrase.

Prin. part, *to weary*; Ad. *him* (obj.) and *by perseverance*; Ad. of *him, whom.....speed* (3).

3. Simple adjective clause.

S. *He*; P. *could surpass*; O. *whom*; Ad. P. *not* and *in speed*.

2. Simple adverbial clause.

S. *foot*; P. *stopped*; O. *course*.

Ad. S. *the, of the mountain*; Ad. P. *till*; Ad. O. *his*; Connective, *till*.

2. "There is strong reason to suspect that some able Whig politicians, who thought it dangerous to relax, at that moment, the laws against political offenses, but who could not, without incurring the charge of inconsistency, declare themselves adverse to relaxation, had conceived a hope that they might, by fomenting the dispute about the court of the lord high steward, defer for at least a year the passing of a bill which they disliked, and yet could not decently oppose."—*Macaulay*.

ANALYSIS.—Complex declarative sentence.

S. *Reason*; P. *is*.

Ad. S. *strong, to suspect..... oppose*; (a) Ad. P. *there*.

a. Complex adjective phrase.

Prin. part, *to suspect*; Ad. (object), *Some able.....oppose*; (Δ) Con. *that*.

- A. Complex object clause.
 S. *Politicians*; P. *had conceived*; O. *hope*.
 Ad. S. *Some, able Whig*, and the two co-ordinate clauses, connected by *but*,
Who thought.....offenses (B), *Who couldrelaxation* (C); Ad. O.
They might.....oppose (D). Con. *that*.
- B. Complex adjective clause.
 S. *who*; P. *thought*; O. *It (to be) dangerous.....offenses* (1).
1. Simple object clause, of the infinitive form.
 S. *It*; P. *to be* (understood); Att. *dangerous*.
 Ad. S. *to relax.....offenses* (b).
- b. Complex explanatory phrase.
 Prin. part, *to relax*; Ad. (primary), *at that moment*, (c) and *laws*; (Second-
 ary), *the*, and *against political offenses* (d).
- c. Simple adverbial phrase.
- d. Simple adjective phrase, modifying *laws*.
- C. Complex adjective clause.
 S. *who*; P. *could declare*; O. *themselves (to be) adverse to relaxation* (2).
 Ad. P. *not, without incurring the charge of inconsistency* (e).
- e. Complex adverbial phrase.
 Prin. part, *incurring*; Ad. (primary), *charge*; (secondary), *the*, and *of incon-*
sistency.
2. Simple object clause, infinitive form.
 S. *themselves*; P. *to be* (und.); Att. *adverse*; Ad. Att. *to relaxation*.
- D. Complex adjective clause.
 S. *they*; P. *might defer*; O. *passing*.
 Ad. P. *by fomentingsteward* (f), *for at least a year* (g);
 Ad. O. *the*, and *of a bill which.....oppose* (h).
- f. Complex adverbial phrase.
 Prin. part, *fomenting*; Ad. (primary), *dispute*, (secondary), *the*, and *about*
.....steward (i).
- i. Complex adjective phrase.
 Prin. part, *court*; Ad. *the*, and *of the lord high steward* (k).
- k. Simple adjective phrase.
- g. Simple adverbial phrase.
 Prin. part, *year*; Ad. *a. At least*, independent phrase.
- h. Complex adjective phrase.
 Prin. part, *bill*; Ad. *a*, and *which.....oppose* (3).
3. Simple adjective clause, with a compound predicate.
 S. *they*; P. (compound), *disliked*, and *could oppose*; Con. *and*; O. *which*.
 Ad. P. (second), *not and decently*.

3.

What wonder, when

Millions of fierce encountering Angels fought
 On either side, the least of whom could wield
 These elements, and arm him with the force
 Of all their regions? How much more of pow'r
 Army 'gainst army numberless, to raise
 Dreadful combustion warring, and disturb,
 Though not destroy, their happy native seat;
 Had not th' Eternal King omnipotent
 From his strong hold of Heav'n high over-ruled

And limited their might; though number'd such
 As each divided legion might have seem'd
 A num'rous host, in strength each armed band
 A legion, led in fight, yet leader seem'd
 Each warrior single as in chief, expert
 When to advance, or stand, or turn the sway
 Of battle, open when, and when to close
 The ridges of grim war.—*Paradise Lost*, VI., 219.

ANALYSIS.—The first period which terminates at *regions*, is a compound interrogative sentence.

1. *What wonder (should there be)?* A. *When.....regions*; Con. *when* (used as a conjunction).

1. Simple interrogative clause.

A. Compound declarative member.

2. *When millions..... side*; 3. *The least.....regions*; Con. *whom*.

The second period, comprising the remainder of the passage, is a compound exclamatory sentence.

1. *How.....seat*; A. *Had.....grim war*; Con. *if* (understood).

1. Simple exclamatory clause.

S. *army*; P. *would have wielded* (understood); O. *power*.

Ad. S. *numberless*, and *warring against (numberless) army*; Ad. O. *to raise dreadful combustion, and disturb, though not destroy their happy native seat*.

A. Compound member.

2. *Had.....might*; B. *Though.....war*; Con. *though*.

2. Simple clause, with a compound predicate.

B. Compound declarative member.

3. *(They were) number'd such*;

C. *Each divided legion.....war*; Con. *as (for that)*.

3. Simple declarative clause.

C. Compound declarative member.

4. *Each divided legion.....host*;

5. *In strength.....legion*;

D. *Led in fight.....war*. No connective.

4, 5. Simple declarative clauses.

D. Compound declarative member.

6. *Each single warrior seemed as a leader in chief, expert.....war*;

7. *(He was) led in fight*. Connectives (corresponsive), *though* and *yet*.

6. Simple declarative member.

S. *Warrior*; P. *seemed*; Att. *leader* (connected to the subject by *as*).

Ad. S. *each, single*; Ad. Att. *a, in chief, and expert*; Ad. of *expert*, *When to advance.....war (a)*

a. Compound adverbial phrase.

b. *When to advance*; c. *when to stand*; d. *when to turn the sway of battle*;

e. *when to open and when to close the ridges of grim war*.

Let the pupil be required to analyze and parse orally, according to the Praxis, the sentences in the following paragraphs, or to prepare a written analysis of each, according to the method, indicated in the above examples.

1. Let the ambitious, whether soldiers, tribunes, or kings, reflect, that, if there are mercenary soldiers to serve them, and flatterers to

excuse them while they reign, there is the conscience of humanity afterward to judge them, and pity to detest them.—*Lamartine*.

2. Some, in their discourse, desire rather commendation of wit, in being able to hold all arguments, than of judgment in discerning what is true; as if it were a praise to know what might be said, and not what should be thought.—*Bacon*.

3. If all the means of education which are scattered over the world, and if all the philosophers and teachers of ancient and modern times, were to be collected together, and made to bring their combined efforts to bear upon an individual, all they could do would be to afford the opportunity of improvement.—*Degerando*.

4. Dreams are the bright creatures of poem and legend, who sport on earth in the night-season, and melt away in the first beams of the sun, which lights grim Care and stern Reality in their daily pilgrimage through the world.—*Dickens*.

5. Montaigne saith prettily, when he inquired the reason why the word of the lie should be such a disgrace and such an odious charge. Saith he, "If it be well weighed, to say that a man lieth, is as much to say, as that he is brave toward God, and a coward toward men."—*Bacon*.

6. Dear sensibility! source inexhausted of all that is precious in our joys, or costly in our sorrows, thou chainest thy martyr down upon his bed of straw, and 'tis thou who lift'st him up to heaven! Eternal fountain of our feeling! 'tis here I trace thee, and this is thy "*divinity which stirs within me*;" not that, in some sad and sickening moments, "*my soul shrinks back upon herself, and startles at destruction*!" (mere pomp of words!) but that I feel some generous cares beyond myself. All comes from thee, great—great Sensorium of the world! which vibrates, if a hair of our heads but falls to the ground, in the remotest desert of thy creation.—*Sterne*.

7. On the fourth day of creation, when the sun, after a glorious but solitary course, went down in the evening, and darkness began to gather over the face of the uninhabited globe, already arrayed in the exuberance of vegetation, and prepared by the diversity of land and water, for the abode of uncreated animals and man,—a star, single and beautiful, stepped forth into the firmament. Trembling with wonder and delight in new-found existence, she looked abroad, and beheld nothing, in heaven or on earth, resembling herself. But she was not long alone; now one, then another, here a third, there a fourth resplendent companion had joined her, till, light after light stealing though the gloom, in the lapse of an hour, the whole hemisphere was brilliantly bespangled.—*Montgomery*.

8. To learn A, B, C, is felt to be extremely irksome by the infant, who cannot comprehend what it is for. The boy, forced to school, cons over his dull lesson because he must, but feels no amusement or satisfaction in it. The labor he is obliged to undergo is not small; the privations of pleasure and activity, he regrets still more; and all for what? To learn what he does not like; to force into his mind words to which he attaches no ideas, or ideas which appear to him to be of no value; [because] he cannot put them to any proper use. Youth is not aware, that not for present use is all this designed. The dull, laborious, but necessary routine, like plowing and sowing the land, is in hopes of reaping abundance, at some not very distant season. Education is not the end, but only the means.—*Taylor*.

9. The voice of the world had whispered to Columbus that the world is one; and as he went forth toward the west, ploughing a wave which no European keel had entered, it was his high purpose not merely to open new paths to islands or to continents, but to bring together the ends of the earth, and join all nations in commerce and spiritual life.—*Bancroft*.

10. To a limited apprehension, it would seem as if the greater part of the existence here allotted us, were little more than an apprenticeship to the business of living; and that, if ever we come to understand our authentic position and relations in the world, and how our time and talents might have been wisely and most effectually employed, it is at a stage of life, when the journey is drawing to a close, and hardly an opportunity is left us to turn what we have been learning to account.—*R. Chambers*.

11. We never, in a moral way, applaud or blame either ourselves or others for what we enjoy or what we suffer; or for having impressions made upon us which we consider as being altogether out of our power: but only for what we do, or would have done had it been in our power; or for what we leave undone which we might have done, or would have left undone though we could have done it.—*Bp. Butler*.

12. Resisting or not, however, we are doomed to suffer a bitter pang as often as the irrecoverable flight of our time is brought home with keenness to our hearts. The spectacle of a lady floating over the sea in a boat, and waking suddenly from sleep to find her magnificent ropes of pearl necklace, by some accident detached at one end from its fastenings, the loose string hanging down into the water, and pearl after pearl slipping off forever into the abyss, brings before us the sadness of the case.—*De Quincey*.

13. Glowing with a vivid conception of these truths, so wonderful and so indisputable, let me ask, whether, among all the spectacles which earth presents, and which angels might look down upon with an ecstasy

too deep for utterance, is there one fairer and more enrapturing to the sight than that of a young man, just fresh from the Creator's hands, and with the unspent energies of the coming eternity wrapped up in his bosom, surveying and recounting, in the solitude of his closet, or in the darkness of midnight, the mighty gifts with which he has been endowed, and the magnificent career of usefulness and of blessedness, which has been opened before him; and resolving, with one all-concentrating and all-hallowing vow, that he will live, true to the noblest capacities of his being, and in obedience to the highest law of his nature!—*Horace Mann*.

14. Could every man apply himself to [the] employments which are most suited to his capabilities, and, in his appointed calling, work only with a view to serviceable, sincere, and ennobling results, the measure of his achievements might still, perchance, fall short of his original aspirations; but, being commensurate with his powers, and conformable to the eternal laws, it could not fail to yield him that assurance of security and contentment which, by necessity, proceeds from all faithfulness of action.—*Chambers*.

15. Where American liberty raised its first voice, and where its youth was nurtured and sustained, there it still lives, in the strength of its manhood, and full of its original spirit. If discord and disunion shall wound it; if party strife and blind ambition shall hawk at and tear it; if folly and madness, if uneasiness under salutary restraint, shall succeed to separate it from that Union, by which alone its existence is made sure, it will stand, in the end, by the side of that cradle in which its infancy was rocked; it will stretch forth its arm with whatever of vigor it may still retain, over the friends who gathered around it; and it will fall at last, if fall it must, amid the proudest monuments of its glory, and on the very spot of its origin.—*Webster*.

16. So live, that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan, that moves
To the pale realms of shade, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not like the quarry-slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave,
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.—*Bryant*.

17. Of chance or change, O let not man complain,
Else shall he never, never cease to wail;
For, from the imperial dome, to where the swain
Rears the lone cottage in the silent dale,
All feel th' assaults of Fortune's fickle gale;

Art, empire, Earth itself, to change are doom'd ;
 Earthquakes have raised to heaven the humble vale,
 And gulfs the mountain's mighty mass entomb'd ;
 And where th' Atlantic rolls, wide continents have bloom'd.

—*Beattie*.

18. The One remains, the many change and pass ;
 Heaven's light forever shines, Earth's shadows fly ;
 Life, like a dome of many-colored glass,
 Stains the white radiance of eternity,
 Until Death tramples it to fragments.—Die,
 If thou wouldst be with that which thou dost seek !
 Follow where all is fled !—Rome's azure sky,
 Flowers, ruins, statues, music,—words are weak
 The glory they transfuse, with fitting truth to speak.—*Shelley*.

19. The honey-bee, that wanders all day long
 The field, the woodland, and the garden o'er,
 To gather in his fragrant winter store,
 Humming in calm content his quiet song,
 Seeks not alone the rose's glowing breast,
 The lily's dainty cup, the violet's lips ;
 But from all rank and noisome weeds he sips
 The single drop of sweetness ever pressed
 Within the poisoned chalice. Thus, if we
 Seek only to draw forth the hidden sweet
 In all the varied human flowers we meet
 In the wide garden of humanity,
 And, like the bee, if home the spoil we bear,
 Hived in our hearts, it turns to nectar there.—*A. C. Lynch*.

20. And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves,
 Dewy with Nature's tear-drops, as they pass,
 Grieving, if aught inanimate ere grieves,
 Over the unreturning brave,—alas !
 Ere evening to be trodden like the grass,
 Which now beneath them, but above shall grow
 In its next verdure, when the fiery mass
 Of living valor, rolling on the foe,
 And burning with high hope, shall molder cold and low.—*Byron*.

21. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
 All but the page prescribed, their present state ;
 From brutes what men, from men what spirits know ;
 Or who could suffer being here below ?
 The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,

Had he thy reason, would he skip and play ?
 Pleas'd to the last, he crops the flowery food,
 And licks the hand just rais'd to shed his blood.
 Oh blindness to the future ! kindly given
 That each may fill the circle mark'd by Heaven,
 Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
 A hero perish, or a sparrow fall,
 Atoms or systems into ruin hurled,
 And now a bubble burst, and now a world.—*Pope.*

22. As thus the snows arise ; and, foul and fierce,
 All Winter drives along the darkened air ;
 In his own loose-revolving fields, the swain
 Disaster'd stands ; sees other hills ascend,
 Of unknown joyless brow ; and other scenes,
 Of horrid prospect, shag the trackless plain ;
 Nor finds the river, nor the forest, hid
 Beneath the formless wild ; but wanders on
 From hill to dale, still more and more astray ;
 Impatient flouncing through the drifted heaps,
 Stung with the thoughts of home ; the thoughts of home
 Rush on his nerves, and call their vigor forth
 In many a vain attempt.—*Thomson.*

23. O treacherous conscience ! while she seems to sleep
 On rose and myrtle, lull'd with syren song ;
 While she seems, nodding o'er her charge, to drop
 On headlong appetite the slacken'd rein,
 And give us up to license, unrecall'd,
 Unmark'd ;—see, from behind her secret stand,
 The sly informer minutes every fault,
 And her dread diary with horror fills.
 Not the gross act alone employs her pen :
 She reconnoiters fancy's airy band,
 A watchful foe ! the formidable spy,
 Listening, o'erhears the whispers of our camp ;
 Our dawning purposes of heart explores,
 And steals our embryos of iniquity.—*Young.*

24. Look, as I blow this feather from my face,
 And as the air blows it to me again,
 Obeying with my wind when I do blow,
 And yielding to another when it blows,
 Commanded always by the greater gust ;
 Such is the lightness of you common men.—*Shakspeare.*

25. Nature never did betray

The heart that loved her ; 'tis her privilege
 Through all the years of this our life, to lead
 From joy to joy ; for she can so inform
 The mind that is within us, so impress
 With quietness and beauty, and so feed
 With lofty thoughts, that neither evil tongues,
 Rash judgments, nor the sneers of selfish men
 Shall e'er prevail against us, or distrust
 Our cheerful faith that all which we behold
 Is full of blessings.— *Wordsworth*.

26. O, Adam, one Almighty is, from whom

All things proceed, and up to him return,
 If not depraved from good, created all
 Such to perfection, one first matter all,
 Endued with various forms, various degrees
 Of substance, and in things that live, of life ;
 But more refined, more spirituous, and pure,
 As nearer to him placed, or nearer tending,
 Each in their sev'ral active spheres assign'd,
 Till body up to spirit work, in bounds
 Proportioned to each kind.— *Milton*.

Exercise XVIII.

SENTENCES OF PECULIAR OR IRREGULAR CONSTRUCTION.

The examples here given, with the subjoined references and annotations, are designed to illustrate, and exercise the pupil in, the various Observations, Exceptions, and Notes under the Sections upon Analysis, and the Rules of Syntax. The Praxis is the same as in the preceding Syntactical Exercises.

I.—PROSE.

The philosopher, the saint, or the hero—the wise, the good, or the great man—very often lies hid and concealed in a plebeian, *which*^a a proper education might have disinterred and brought to light.—*Addison*.

Knowest thou not this of old, since man was placed upon the earth, that the triumphing of the wicked is short, and the joy of the hypocrite *but*^b for a moment.—*Job* xx., 4, 5.

^aNote V., Rule XIV.

^bObs. 4, Rule III.

Wherefore ye *needs*^c must be subject, not only for wrath, but also for *conscience*^d sake.—*Rom.* xiii., 5.

For now I see through a glass darkly; but then, *face to face*^e: now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known.—1 *Cor.* xiii., 12.

Ye have heard that it hath been said, “*An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth.*”^f—*Matt.* v., 37.

Every man should let his man-servant, and every man his maid-servant, being a Hebrew or an Hebrewess, go free; that none should serve himself of them, *to wit*,^g of a Jew his brother.—*Jer.* xxxiv., 9.

The beautiful forest in which we were encamped, abounded in bectrees; *that is to say*,^h trees in the decayed trunks of which, wild bees had established their hives.—*Ireing.*

And this is the record of John, when the Jews sent priests and Levites from Jerusalem *to ask him*,ⁱ “Who art thou?” And he confessed, and denied not, but confessed, “I am not the Christ.” And they asked him, “What then? Art thou Elias?” and he saith, “I am not.” “Art thou that prophet?” and he answered, “*No.*”^k—*John* i., 19.

The rudiments of every language, therefore, must be given *as*^l a task, not as an amusement.—*Goldsmith.*

Time we ought to consider *as*^l a sacred trust committed to us by God, of which we are now the depositories, and [of which] we are *to render an account at the last.*^m—*Blair.*

True generosity is a duty as indispensably necessary as *those*ⁿ imposed upon us by law.—*Goldsmith.*

To teach men to be orators, is little less than *to teach them to be poets.*ⁿ—*Id.*

Lysippus is told *that his banker asks a debt of forty pounds*,^o and that a distressed acquaintance petitions for the same sum. He gives it, without hesitating, to the latter; for he demands as a favor what the former requires as a debt.—*Id.*

The laws of Eastern hospitality allowed them to enter, and the master

^c Impersonal verb, used here as an adverb, equivalent to *necessarily*.

^d Obs. 5, Rule XVIII.

^e Adverbial phrase, *idiomatic*; or independent phrase, *absolute*. See page 117.

^f Explanatory clause, predicate being understood. Obs. 4, Rule XXIV.

^g An infinitive, equivalent to *namely*. Obs. 3, Defective Verbs, page 104.

^h A clause used as a conjunction, connecting appositional terms.

ⁱ Obs. 2, Rule XIX.

^k Exception 1, Rule III.

^l Obs. 3, Rule XXV.

^m Infinitive phrase, used as an adjective attribute.

ⁿ Subject of *are* understood. Obs. 4, Rule XXV.

^o Clause adjunct of the predicate verb *is told*. Obs. 3, Rule XIX.

welcomed them, *like*^r a man liberal and wealthy. He was skillful enough in appearances soon *to discern*^q that they were no common guests, and spread his table with magnificence.—*Dr. Johnson.*

The year before, he had so used the matter, that, *what*^r by force, *what* by policy, he had taken from the Christians above thirty small castles.—*Knolles.*

We exhorted them *to trust in God*,^s and to love *one an other*.^t—*J. Campbell.*

With all due respect for the calculations of men of science, *I cannot but remember*^u that when most confident, they have sometimes erred.

I could not do a better thing than *to commend*^v this habit to my brethren as one closely connected with their own personal piety, and their usefulness in the world.—*A. Barnes.*

It is a good practical rule to keep one's reading well *proportioned*^w in the two great divisions, prose and poetry.—*H. Reid.*

For a prince to be reduced by villainy to my distressful circumstances,^x is calamity enough.—*Sallust.*

Who knows *but*^y that God, who made the world, may cause that giant Despair may die?—*Bunyan.*

What can be more strange than, that an ounce weight should balance hundreds of pounds, by the intervention of a few bars of thin iron?^z

This lovely land, this glorious liberty, these benign institutions, the dear purchase of our fathers, are ours; ours *to enjoy*, ours *to preserve*, ours *to transmit*.^a—*Webster.*

The knowledge of *why they so exist*,^b must be the last act of favor which time and toil will bestow.—*Rush.*

To do what is right, with unperverted faculties, is *ten times*^c easier than to undo what is wrong.—*Porter.*

^r An adjective followed by *to* understood. Obs. 4, Rule XX.

^q The infinitive with its object clause modifies *enough*. Obs. 2, Rule XXI. Subdivision, 4.

^r Obs. 13, Rule XIV.

^s Obs. 2, Rule XIX.

^t Obs. 9, Rule VII.

^u *Remember*, an infinitive used as the object of the preposition *but*. Obs. 3, Rule XXI. *Can* is auxiliary to *do*, understood.

^v *To commend*, with its adjuncts, is subject to a verb understood. Obs. 4, Rule XXV.

^w Indirect attribute. Obs. 6, Rule XIII.

^x Subject phrase, containing an infinitive object clause, used as the object of *for* (Exc. 2, Rule V.). The structure is anomalous, equivalent to, That a prince should be reduced, etc.

^y *But* is here a preposition, governing the following substantive clause.

^z The clause introduced by *that* is the subject of *is*, understood. Obs. 4, Rule XIII.

^a Obs. 2, Rule XXI.

^b Clause used as the object of the preposition *of*.

^c A prepositional phrase, *by* being understood.

And he charged *them* that *they* should tell no man ;^d but *the* more he charged them, so much *the* more a great deal^e they published it.—*Mark* vii., 36.

For in *that* he himself hath suffered being tempted,^g he is able to succor them that are tempted.—*Hebrews* xi., 18.

It is not to inflate national vanity, nor to swell a light and empty feeling of self-importance ; but it is, *that we may judge justly of our situation and of our duties*,^h *that I earnestly urge this consideration of our position and our character among the nations of the earth*.ⁱ—*Webster*.

I had rather believe all the fables in the Legend, and the Talmud, and the Alcoran, than *that this universal frame is without a mind*.^k—*Bacon*.

II.—POETRY.

See the sole bliss Heaven could on all bestow,
Which *who but feels*,^a can taste, but thinks, can know ;
Yet, poor with fortune, and with learning blind,
The bad must miss, the good, untaught will find.—*Pope*.

Shame to mankind ! Philander had his foes ;
He felt the truths I sing, and I, in him ;
But *he, nor I feel*^b more.—*Young*.

So reads he nature, whom the lamp of truth
Illuminates :—thy lamp, mysterious Word !
Which whoso sees, no longer wanders lost,
With intellect bemaz'd in endless doubt,
But runs the *road*^c of wisdom.—*Cowper*.

Yet O the thought, *that thou art safe*,^d and he !
That thought is joy, arrive what may to me.—*Id.*

The *bless'd to-day*^e is as completely so,
As who began *a*^f *thousand years ago*.^g—*Pope*.

^d Double object, *man* and the following clause. Obs. 2, Rule XIX.

^e Exc. 1, Rule I.

^f *Deal* governed by *by*, understood.

^g *Being tempted* may relate to *he* or be governed by *in*, understood.

^h Attribute clause, commencing with *that*.

ⁱ Explanatory clause, adjunct of *it*.

^k Object clause, *believe* being understood.

^a Equivalent to *he who only feels*.

^b Obs. 2, Rule XVII.

^c Obs. 5, Rule XIX.

^d Clause used as an adjunct of *thought*.

^e *Blessed to-day* is used as a noun, equivalent to *The man who is blessed to-day*.

^f Obs. 8, Rule I.

^g Independent phrase, *ago* being used for *agone*, *gone*, or *passed*.

Full *many a gem*^h of purest ray serene
 The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear;
 Full many a flower *is* born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.—*Gray*.

Then kneeling down to heaven's eternal King,
 The saint, the father, and the husband prays ;¹
 Hope "springs exulting on triumphant wing,"
 That thus they all shall meet in future days.—*Burns*.

He can't flatter, he !
 An honest mind and plain ; he must speak truth ;
An^k they will hear it, so ; if not, he's plain.—*Shakspeare*.
What !¹ canst thou not forbear me *half an hour* ?^m
 Then get thee *gone*,ⁿ and dig my grave thyself.—*Id*.
 If still she loves thee, hoard that gem ;
 'Tis *worth*^o thy vanish'd diadem.—*Byron*.

He calls for Famine, and the meager fiend
 Blows mildew *from between his shrivel'd lips*,^p
 And taints the golden ear.—*Cowper*.

Here he had need
 All circumspection ; and we now, no less,
 Choice in our suffrage ; for on *whom*^q we send,
 The weight of all, and our last hope relies.—*Milton*.
 Who wickedly is wise, or madly brave,
 Is but *the*^r more a fool, *the* more a knave.—*Pope*.
 O God ! *methinks*^s it were a happy life
 To be no better than a homely swain !
 To sit upon a hill, as I do now,
 To carve out dials quaintly, point by point,
 Thereby to see the minutes how they run.—*Shakspeare*.
 Poor guiltless I ! and can I choose *but smile*,^t
 When every coxcomb knows me by my style.—*Pope*.

^h Obs. 3, Note II., Rule II.

¹ Exc. 1, Rule X.

^k Obs. 9, Rule I.

¹ Obs. 14, Rule XIV.

^m Obs. 3, Rule XX.

ⁿ Indirect attribute. Obs. 6, Rule XIII.

^o Obs. 5, Rule XX.

^p Obs. 6, Rule V.

^q *Whom* equivalent to *him whom*.

^r Exc. 1, Rule I.

^s Defective Verbs, Obs. 1, page 103.

^t Infinitive, object to preposition *but*. Obs. 5, Rule XXI.

Me^u miserable ! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath, and infinite despair ?—*Milton*.

Ay, but *to die*,^v and *go* we know not where ;
To lie in cold obstruction and *to rot* ;
This sensible warm motion *to become*
A kneaded clod ;—'tis too horrible.—*Shakspeare*.

My soul, turn from them—*turn we*^w to survey
Where roughest climes a nobler race display.—*Goldsmith*.

Cursed *be I*^x that did so ! All the *charms*
Of Sycorax, toads, beetles, bats, *light*^z on you !—*Shakspeare*.

Then thus my guide, in accent higher raised
Than I before had heard him : “ Capaneus !
Thou art more punish'd, in *that this thy pride*
Lives yet unquench'd^y ; no torment, save thy rage,
Were ^z to thy fury pain proportion'd full.”—*Cary's Dante*.

Yet a few days,^a and thee,
The all-beholding sun shall see no more
In all his course ; nor yet, in the cold ground,
Where thy pale form was laid with many tears,
Nor in the embrace of ocean, shall exist
Thy image.—*Bryant*.

Questions for Review.

I.—DEFINITIONS.

Of what does Syntax treat ?—derivation of the word ?

What is the *relation* of words ?—the *agreement* of words ?—the *government* of words ?—the *arrangement* of words ?

II.—RULES.

What is the design of the rules of syntax ?

How are they classified ?

What are the rules of Relation ?—of Agreement ?—of Government ?

What rule relates to the form of the Infinitive Mood ?—to the use of the Subjunctive Mood ?—the Independent Case ?—Conjunctions ?—Interjections ?

What is the object of Analysis and Synthesis ?

^u Exc., Rule XXIV., and Obs. 2, Rule XXVI.

^v Infinitive independent. Obs. 3, Rule XXI.

^w Imperative mood used in the first person. Obs., page 85.

^x Imperative, third person, plural.

^y Clause used as the object of a preposition. Obs., page 118.

^z Subjunctive mood used for the potential.

^a Independent phrase, *days* being absolute with *being* or *passing*.

III.—RELATION.

What is the rule in regard to the relation of Articles ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule in regard to the relation of Adjectives ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule in regard to the relation of Adverbs ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule in regard to the relation of Participles ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule in regard to the relation of Prepositions ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?

IV.—AGREEMENT.

What is the rule for the Nominative Case ?
 What are the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for Apposition ?
 What are the observations ?
 What is the rule in regard to the agreement of a verb and subject ?
 What are the observations ?—subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the verb, when the nominative is a collective noun ?
 What is the observation on this rule ?
 What is the rule for the verb when it has two or more nominatives connected by *and* ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the verb, when it has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor* ?
 What are the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the agreement of verbs, when they are connected by a conjunction ?
 What exception is there ?—observation ?—what are the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the agreement of subject and attribute ?
 What are the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule in regard to the agreement of a pronoun and its antecedent ?
 What are the exceptions ?—the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the collective antecedent ?
 What is the rule for antecedents connected by *and* ?
 What are the observations ?

V.—GOVERNMENT.

To what has Government respect ?
 What parts of speech may be governing words ?
 What is the rule for the government of the possessive case ?
 What are the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the object of a verb ?
 What are the observations ?—the subordinate rules ?
 What is the rule for the object of a preposition ?
 What are the observations ?

What is the rule for the government of the infinitive ?

What are the observations ?

VI.—MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

What is the rule for the omission of *to* before the infinitive ?

What are the observations ?

What is the rule for the use of the Subjunctive Mood ?

What three points are involved in this rule ?

When only is the subjunctive mood required ?

How is this illustrated ?

What is the rule for the Independent Case ?

Under what four circumstances is a noun or a pronoun independent ? Illustrate each.

What other observations on this rule ?

What is the rule for Conjunctions ?

What exceptions are there ?—what observations ?—subordinate rules ?

What is the rule for Interjections ?—what observations ?

VII.—ARRANGEMENT.

Why is Arrangement particularly important in English ?

What is the place of the subject noun or pronoun ?—the object or attribute ?

What principle or law controls the inversion of this order ?

What illustrations are given ?

What are the applications of this law to the adjective ?

What rule is given in regard to the relative ?

What is the rule for adverbs and adverbial expressions ?

How does it apply to other adjuncts ?

What General Rule is given for construction ?

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

I.—PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relation of the words, and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading.

The following are the principal points, or marks: the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.] , the Dash [—], the Eroteme, or Note of Interrogation [?], the Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation [!], the Brackets [], and Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis ().

OBS.—The pauses that are made in the natural flow of speech, have, in reality, no definite and invariable proportions. Children are often told to pause at a comma while they might count *one* ; at a semicolon, *one, two* ; at a colon, *one, two, three* ; at a period, *one, two, three, four*. This may be of some use, as teaching them to observe their stops that they may catch the sense ; but the standard itself is variable, and so are the times which good sense gives to the points. As a final stop, the period is immeasurable. The following general direction is as good as any that can be given :—

The **comma** denotes the shortest pause ; the **semicolon**, a pause double that of the comma ; the **colon**, a pause double that of the semicolon ; and the **period**,

or **full stop**, a pause double that of the colon. The pauses required by the other marks vary according to the structure of the sentence, and their place in it. They may be equal to any of the foregoing.

The Comma.

The **comma** is used to separate those parts of a sentence, which are so nearly connected in sense, as to be only one degree removed from that close connection which admits no point.

RULE I.—SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A simple sentence does not, in general, admit the comma; as, "The weakest reasoners are the most positive."

Exception.—When the nominative in a long simple sentence is accompanied by inseparable adjuncts, a comma should be placed before the verb; as, "The assemblage of these vast bodies, is divided into different systems."

RULE II.—SIMPLE MEMBERS.

The simple members of a compound sentence, whether successive or involved, elliptical or complete, are generally divided by the comma; as,

1. "He speaks eloquently, and he acts wisely."
2. "The man, when he saw this, departed."
3. "It may, and it often does happen."
4. "That life is long, which answers life's great end."
5. "As thy days, so shall thy strength be."

Exception 1.—When a relative immediately follows its antecedent, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be introduced before it; as, "The things *which are seen*, are temporal; but the things *which are not seen*, are eternal."—2 Cor. iv., 18.

Exception 2.—When the simple members are short, and closely connected by a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb, the comma is generally omitted; as, "Infamy is worse *than* death."—"Let him tell me *whether* the number of the stars be even or odd."

RULE III.—MORE THAN TWO WORDS.

When more than two words or terms are connected in the same construction, by conjunctions expressed or understood, the comma should be inserted after every one of them but the last ; and if they are nominatives before a verb, the comma should follow the last also ; as,

1. "Who, to the enraptur'd heart, and ear, and eye,
Teach beauty, virtue, truth, and love, and melody."
2. "Ah ! what avails * * * * *
All that art, fortune, enterprise, can bring,
If envy, scorn, remorse, or pride, the bosom wring?"
3. "Women are soft, mild, pitiful, and flexible ;
Thou, stern, obdurate, flinty, rough, remorseless."
4. "She plans, provides, expatiates, triumphs there."

OBS.—Two or more words are in the *same construction*, when they have a common dependence on some other term.

RULE IV.—ONLY TWO WORDS.

When only two words or terms are connected by a conjunction, they should not be separated by the comma ; as, "Despair and anguish fled the struggling soul."—*Goldsmith*.

Exception 1.—When the two words connected have several adjuncts, or when one of them has an adjunct that relates not to both, the comma is inserted ; as, "Honesty in his dealings, and attention to his business, procured him both esteem and wealth."—"Who is applied to persons, or things personified."

Exception 2.—When the two words connected are emphatically distinguished, the comma is inserted ; as,

"Liberal, not lavish, is kind Nature's hand."—*Beattie*.

"'Tis certain he could write, and cipher too."—*Goldsmith*.

Exception 3.—When there is merely an alternative of words, the comma is inserted ; as, "We saw a large opening, or inlet."

Exception 4.—When the conjunction is understood, the comma is inserted ; as,

"She thought the isle that gave her birth,
The sweetest, wildest land on earth."—*Hogg*.

RULE V.—WORDS IN PAIRS.

When successive words are joined in pairs by conjunctions, they should be separated in pairs by the comma ; as, “Interest and ambition, honor and shame, friendship and enmity, gratitude and revenge, are the prime movers in public transactions.”

RULE VI.—WORDS PUT ABSOLUTE.

Nouns or pronouns put absolute, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma ; as, “The prince, *his father being dead*, succeeded.”—“*This done*, we parted.”—“*Zaccheus*, make haste and come down.”—“*His prætorship in Sicily*, what did it produce ?”—*Cicero*.

RULE VII.—WORDS IN APPPOSITION.

Words put in apposition (especially if they have adjuncts), are generally set off by the comma ; as, “He that now calls upon thee, is Theodore, *the hermit of Teneriffe*.”—*Johnson*.

Exception 1.—When several words, in their common order, are used as one compound name, the comma is not inserted ; as, “Samuel Johnson.”—“Publius Gavius Cosanus.”

Exception 2.—When a common and a proper name are closely united, the comma is not inserted ; as, “The brook Kidron.”—“The river Don.”—“The empress Catharine.”—“Paul the apostle.”

Exception 3.—When a pronoun is added to another word merely for emphasis and distinction, the comma is not inserted ; as, “Ye men of Athens.”—“I myself.”—“Thou flaming minister.”—“You princes.”

Exception 4.—When a name acquired by some action or relation, is put in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun, the comma is not inserted ; as, “I made the *ground* my bed.”—“To make *him* king.”—“Whom they revered as *God*.”—“With *modesty* thy guide.”—*Pope*.

RULE VIII.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives, when something depends on them, or when they have the import of a dependent clause, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma ; as,

1. ————— “Among the roots

Of hazel, *pendent o’er the plaintive stream*,

They frame the first foundation of their domes.”—*Thom*.

2. _____ “Up springs the lark,
Shrill-voic'd and loud, the messenger of morn.”—*Id.*

Exception.—When an adjective immediately follows its noun, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be used before it; as,

“On the coast *averse from entrance.*”—*Milton.*

RULE IX.—FINITE VERBS.

Where a finite verb is understood, a comma is generally required; as, “From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge.”—*Murray.*

RULE X.—INFINITIVES.

The infinitive mood, when it follows a verb from which it must be separated, or when it depends on something remote or understood, is generally, with its adjuncts, set off by the comma; as, “His delight was, *to assist the distressed.*”—“*To conclude, I was reduced to beggary.*”

“The Governor of all—has interposed,
 Not seldom, his avenging arm, *to smite*
 The injurious trampler upon nature’s law.”—*Cowper.*

RULE XI.—PARTICIPLES.

Participles, when something depends on them, when they have the import of a dependent clause, or when they relate to something understood, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma; as,

1. “Young Edwin, *lighted by the evening star,*
Ling’ring and list’ning, wander’d down the vale.”—*Beattie.*
2. “*United, we stand; divided, we fall.*”
3. “*Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance.*”

Exception.—When a participle immediately follows its noun, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be used before it; as,

“A man *renown’d for repartee*
 Will seldom scruple to make free
 With friendship’s finest feeling.”—*Cowper.*

RULE XII.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs, when they break the connection of a simple sentence, or when they have not a close dependence on some particular word in the context, should be set off by the comma ; as, “ We must not, *however*, confound this gentleness with the artificial courtesy of the world.”—“ *Besides*, the mind must be employed.”—“ *Most unquestionably*, no fraud was equal to all this.”—*Lyttelton*.

RULE XIII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions, when they are separated from the principal clause that depends on them, or when they introduce an example, are generally set off by the comma ; as, “ *But*, by a timely call upon Religion, the force of Habit was eluded.”—*Johnson*.

RULE XIV.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions and their objects, when they break the connection of a simple sentence, or when they do not closely follow the words on which they depend, are generally set off by the comma ; as, “ Fashion is, *for the most part*, nothing but the ostentation of riches.”—“ *By reading*, we add the experience of others to our own.”

RULE XV.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are sometimes set off by the comma ; as, “ For, *lo*, I will call all the families of the kingdoms of the north.”—*Jeremiah i.*, 15.

RULE XVI.—WORDS REPEATED.

A word emphatically repeated, is generally set off by the comma ; as, “ Happy, happy, happy pair ! ”—*Dryden*. “ Ah ! no, no, no.”—*Id.*

RULE XVII.—DEPENDENT QUOTATIONS.

A quotation or observation, when it is introduced by a verb (as, *say*, *reply*, and the like), is generally separated

from the rest of the sentence by the comma ; as, “ ‘The book of nature,’ said he, ‘is open before thee.’ ”—“I say unto all, Watch.”

The Semicolon.

The **semicolon** is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the comma, nor so little dependent as those which require the colon.

RULE I.—COMPOUND MEMBERS.

When several compound members, some or all of which require the comma, are constructed into a period, they are generally separated by the semicolon : as, “In the regions inhabited by angelic natures, unmingled felicity forever blooms ; joy flows there with a perpetual and abundant stream, nor needs any mound to check its course.”—*Carter*.

RULE II.—SIMPLE MEMBERS.

When several simple members, each of which is complete in sense, are constructed into a period ; if they require a pause greater than that of the comma, they are usually separated by the semicolon : as, “Straws swim upon the surface ; but pearls lie at the bottom.”—*Murray*.

“A longer care man’s helpless kind demands ;

That longer care contracts more lasting bands.”—*Pope*.

RULE III.—APPOSITION, ETC.

Words in apposition, in disjunct pairs, or in any other construction, if they require a pause greater than that of the comma, and less than that of the colon, may be separated by the semicolon : as, “There are five moods ; the infinitive, the indicative, the potential, the subjunctive, and the imperative.”

The Colon.

The **colon** is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the semicolon, nor so little dependent as those which require the period.

RULE I.—ADDITIONAL REMARKS.

When the preceding clause is complete in itself, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, especially if no conjunction is used, the colon is generally and properly inserted; as, “Avoid evil doers: in such society an honest man may become ashamed of himself.”—“See that moth fluttering incessantly around the candle: man of pleasure, behold thy image.”—*Kames*.

RULE II.—GREATER PAUSES.

When the semicolon has been introduced, and a still greater pause is required within the period, the colon should be employed: as, “Princes have courtiers, and merchants have partners; the voluptuous have companions, and the wicked have accomplices: none but the virtuous can have friends.”

RULE III.—INDEPENDENT QUOTATIONS.

A quotation introduced without dependence on a verb or a conjunction, is generally preceded by the colon; as, “In his last moments he uttered these words: ‘*I fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury.*’”

The Period.

The **period**, or **full stop**, is used to mark an entire and independent sentence, whether simple or compound.

RULE I.—DISTINCT SENTENCES.

When a sentence is complete in respect to sense, and independent in respect to construction, it should be marked with

the period ; as, “ Every deviation from truth is criminal. Abhor a falsehood. Let your words be ingenuous. Sincerity possesses the most powerful charm.”

RULE II.—ALLIED SENTENCES.

The period is often employed between two sentences which have a general connection, expressed by a personal pronoun, a conjunction, or a conjunctive adverb ; as, “ The selfish man languishes in his narrow circle of pleasures. *They* are confined to what affects his own interests. *He* is obliged to repeat the same gratifications, till they become insipid. *But* the man of virtuous sensibility moves in a wider sphere of felicity.”—*Blair*.

RULE III.—ABBREVIATIONS.

The period is generally used after abbreviations, and very often to the exclusion of other points ; but, as in this case it is not a constant sign of pause, other points may properly follow it, if the words written in full would demand them ; as, A.D. for *Anno Domini*.—Pro tem. for *pro tempore*.—Ult. for *ultimo*.—i. e. for *id est*.

“ Consult the statute ; ‘ quart.’ I think, it is,
‘ Edwardi sext.,’ or ‘ prim. et quint. Eliz.’ ”—*Pope*.

The Dash.

The **dash** is mostly used to denote an unexpected or emphatic pause of variable length ; but sometimes it is a sign of faltering ; sometimes, of omission : if set after another sign or pause, it usually lengthens the interval.

RULE I.—ABRUPT PAUSES.

A sudden interruption or transition should be marked with the dash ; as, “ ‘ I must inquire into the affair, and if ’—‘ And if ! ’ interrupted the farmer.”

“ Here lies the great—false marble, where ?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.”—*Young*.

RULE II.—EMPHATIC PAUSES.

To mark a considerable pause, greater than the structure of the sentence or the points inserted would seem to require, the dash may be employed ; as,

1. "And now they part—to meet no more."
2. "Revere thyself ;—and yet thyself despise."
3. "Behold the picture !—Is it like ?—Like whom ?"

RULE III.—FAULTY DASHES.

Dashes needlessly inserted, or substituted for other stops more definite, are in general to be treated as errors in punctuation.

EXAMPLE : "—You shall go home directly, Le Fevre, said my uncle Toby, to my house,—and we 'll send for a doctor to see what's the matter,—and we 'll have an apothecary,—and the corporal shall be your nurse ;—and I 'll be your servant, Le Fevre."—*Sterne*.

Better thus : "'You shall go home directly, Le Fevre,' said my uncle Toby, 'to my house ; and we'll send for a doctor to see what's the matter ; and we'll have an apothecary ; and the corporal shall be your nurse : and I'll be your servant, Le Fevre.'"

The Eroteme.

The **erote me**, or **note of interrogation**, is used to designate a question.

RULE I.—QUESTIONS DIRECT.

Questions expressed directly as such, if finished, should always be followed by the note of interrogation ; as,

- "In life, can love be bought with gold ?
Are friendship's pleasures to be sold ?"—*Johnson*.

RULE II.—QUESTIONS UNITED.

When two or more questions are united in one compound sentence, the comma or semicolon is sometimes placed between them, and the note of interrogation, after the last only ; as,

- "Truths would you teach, or save a sinking land ?
All fear, none aid you, and few understand."—*Pope*.

RULE III.—QUESTIONS INDIRECT.

When a question is mentioned, but not put directly as a question, it loses both the quality and the sign of interrogation ; as, “The Cyprians asked me *why I wept.*”—*Murray.*

The Ecphoneme.

The **ecphoneme**, or **note of exclamation**, is used to denote a pause with some strong or sudden emotion of the mind ; and, as a sign of great wonder, it may be repeated. [!!!]

RULE I.—INTERJECTIONS, ETC.

Interjections, and other expressions of great emotion, are generally followed by the note of exclamation ; as,

“O ! let me listen to the words of life !”—*Thomson.*

RULE II.—INVOCATIONS.

After an earnest address or solemn invocation, the note of exclamation is usually preferred to any other point ; as, “Whereupon, O king Agrippa ! I was not disobedient unto the heavenly vision.”—*Acts* xxvi., 19.

RULE III.—EXCLAMATORY QUESTIONS.

Words uttered with vehemence in the form of a question, but without reference to an answer, should be followed by the note of exclamation ; as, “How madly have I talked !”—*Young.*

The Curves.

The **curves**, or **marks of parenthesis**, are used to distinguish a clause or hint that is hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence to which it does not properly belong ; as,

“To others do (the law is not severe,
What to thyself thou wishest to be done.”—*Beattie.*

OBS.—The incidental clause should be uttered in a lower tone, and faster than the principal sentence. It always requires a pause as *great* as that of a comma or greater.

RULE I.—THE PARENTHESIS.

A clause that breaks the unity of a sentence too much to be incorporated with it, and only such, should be enclosed as a parenthesis ; as,

“ Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below.”—*Pope*.

RULE II.—INCLUDED POINTS.

The curves do not supersede other stops ; and, as the parenthesis terminates with a pause equal to that which precedes it, the same point should be included, except when the sentences differ in form ; as,

1. “ Man’s thirst of happiness declares it is :
(For nature never gravitates to nought :)
That thirst unquench’d, declares it is not here.”—*Young*.
2. “ Night visions may befriend : (as sung above :)
Our waking dreams are fatal. How I dreamt
Of things impossible ! (could sleep do more ?)
Of joys perpetual in perpetual change.”—*Young*.

Other Marks.

There are also several other marks, which are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow :—

1. ['] The **Apostrophe** usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun, or the elision of one or more letters of a word ; as, “ The *girl’s* regard to her *parents’* advice.”—‘*gan, lov’d, e’en, thro’* ; for *began, loved, even, through*.

2. [-] The **Hyphen** connects the parts of many compound words, especially such as have two accents ; as, *ever-living*. It is also frequently inserted where a word is divided into syllables ; as, *con-tem-plate*. Placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.

2. [¨] The **Diæresis**, or **Dialysis**, placed over either of two contiguous vowels, shows that they are not a diphthong; as, *Danæe*, *æërial*.

4. ['] The **Acute Accent** marks the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, *equal*, *equal'ity*. It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close or short vowel; as, "*Fáncy*:" or to denote the rising inflection of the voice; as, "Is it *hé*?"

5. [`] The **Grave Accent** is used in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open or long vowel; as, "*Fávör* ." (*Murray* :) or to denote the falling inflection of the voice; as, "*Yès* it is *hè*."

6. [^] The **Circumflex** generally denotes either the broad sound of *a*, or an unusual and long sound given to some other vowel; as in *âir*, *câre*, *êre*, *thêre*, *hêir*, *ûrn*, *bûrn*.

7. [~] The **Breve**, or **Stenotone**, is used to denote either a close vowel or a syllable of short quantity; as, *răven*, to devour.

8. [¯] The **Macron**, or **Macrotone**, is used to denote either an open vowel or a syllable of long quantity; as, *rāven*, a bird.

9. [—] or [****] The **Ellipsis**, denotes the omission of some letters or words; as, *K—g*, for *king*.

10. [_] The **Caret**, used only in writing, shows where to insert words or letters that have been accidentally omitted.

11. [~] The **Brace** serves to unite a triplet, or to connect several terms with something to which they are all related.

12. [§] The **Section** marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and, with the help of numbers, serves to abridge references.

13. [¶] The **Paragraph** (chiefly used in the Bible) denotes the commencement of a new subject. The parts of discourse which are called paragraphs are, in general, sufficiently distinguished by beginning a new line, and carrying the first word a little forward or backward.

14. [" "] The **Guillemets**, or **Quotation Points**, distinguish words that are taken from another author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points, which, when both are employed, are placed within the others.

15. [[]] The **Crotchets**, or **Brackets**, generally enclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained; as, "He [the speaker] was of a different opinion."

16. [☞] The **Index**, or **Hand**, points out something remarkable, or what the reader should particularly observe.

17. [*] The **asterisk**, or **star**, [†] the **obelisk**, or **dagger**, [‡] the **diesis**, or **double dagger**, and [||] the **parallels**, refer

to marginal notes. The **section** [§] and the **paragraph** [¶], are also often used for marks of reference, the former being usually applied to the fourth, and the latter to the sixth, note on a page; for, by the usage of printers, these signs are now commonly introduced in the following order: 1 *, 2 †, 3 ‡, 4 §, 5 ¶, 6 ¶, 7 **, 8 ††, etc. When many references are to be made, the *small letters* of the alphabet, or the *numerical figures*, in their order, may be conveniently used for the same purpose.

18. [* *] The **asterism**, or **three stars**, a sign not very often used, is placed before a long or general note, to mark it as a note, without giving it a particular reference.

19. [ç] The **cedilla** is a mark borrowed from the French, by whom it is placed under the letter *c*, to give it the sound of *s* before *a* or *o*; as, in the words, "*façade*," "*Alençon*." It is also attached to other letters, to denote their *soft* sounds: as, *çh* as *sh*; *ç* as *z*; *ç* as *gz*.

For *oral exercises* in punctuation, the teacher may select any well-pointed book, to which the foregoing rules and explanations may be applied by the pupil. An application of the principles of punctuation, either to points rightly inserted, or in the correction of errors, is as easy a process as ordinary syntactical parsing or correcting; and, in proportion to the utility of these principles, as useful. The exercise, in relation to correct pointing, consists in reading some passage, in successive parts, according to its points; naming the latter as they occur; and repeating the rules or doctrines of punctuation, as the reasons for the marks employed. *Written exercises* are given below.

Exercises in Punctuation.

I.—The Comma.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma where it is required.

RULE I.

The dogmatist's assurance is paramount to argument.
The whole course of his argumentation comes to nothing.
The fieldmouse builds her garner under ground.

Exceptions.

One of the arts that contribute most to the cultivation of the human mind is the art of language.
To remain insensible to such provocation is apathy.
He who strives to injure others cannot be happy.

RULE II.

I was eyes to the blind and feet was I to the lame.
They are gone but the remembrance of them is sweet.

He has passed it is likely through varieties of fortune.
 The mind though free has a governor within itself.
 They I doubt not oppose the bill on public principles.
 Be silent be grateful and adore.
 He is an adept in language who always speaks the truth.
 The race is not to the swift nor the battle to the strong.

Exceptions.

1. He that has far to go should not hurry.
 Hobbes believed the eternal truths which he opposed.
 Feeble are all pleasures in which the heart has no share.
2. A good name is better than precious ointment.
 Thinkst thou that duty shall have dread to speak ?
 The spleen is seldom felt where Flora reigns.

RULE III.

The city army court espouse my cause.
 Wars pestilences and diseases are terrible instructors.
 Walk daily in a pleasant airy and umbrageous garden.
 Wit spirits faculties but make it worse.
 Men wives and children stare cry out and run.

RULE IV.

Hope and fear are essentials in religion.
 Praise and adoration are perfective of our souls.
 We know bodies and their properties most perfectly.
 Satisfy yourselves with what is rational and attainable.

Exceptions.

1. God will rather look to the inward motions of the mind than to the outward form of the body.
 Gentleness is unassuming in opinion and temperate in zeal.
2. He has experienced prosperity and also adversity.
 All sin essentially is and must be mortal.
3. One person is chosen chairman or moderator.
 Duration or time is measured by motion.
 The governor or viceroy is chosen annually.
4. Reflection reason still the ties improve.
 His neat plain parlor wants our modern style.

RULE V.

I inquired and rejected consulted and deliberated.
 Seed-time and harvest cold and heat summer and winter day and night
 shall not cease.

RULE VI.

The night being dark they did not proceed.
 There being no other coach we had no alternative.
 Remember my son that human life is the journey of a day.
 All circumstances considered it seems right.
 He that overcometh to him will I give power.
 Your land strangers devour it in your presence.
 Ah sinful nation a people laden with iniquity!

With heads declin'd ye cedars homage pay;
 Be smooth ye rocks ye rapid floods give way!

RULE VII.

Now Philomel sweet songstress charms the night.
 'Tis chanticleer the shepherd's clock announcing day.
 The evening star love's harbinger appears.
 The queen of night fair Dian smiles serene.
 There is yet one man Micaiah the son of Imlah.
 Our whole company man by man ventured down.
 As a work of wit the Dunciad has few equals.

In the same temple the resounding wood
 All vocal beings hymned their equal God.

Exceptions.

1. The last king of Rome was Tarquinius Superbus.
 Bossuet highly eulogizes Maria Theresa of Austria.
2. For he went and dwelt by the brook Cherith.
 Remember the example of the patriarch Joseph.
3. I wisdom dwell with prudence.
 Ye fools be ye of an understanding heart.
 I tell you that which you yourselves do know.
4. I crown thee king of intimate delights.
 I count the world a stranger for thy sake.
 And this makes friends such miracles below.
 God has pronounced it death to taste that tree.
 Grace makes the slave a freeman.

RULE VIII.

Deaf with the noise I took my hasty flight.
 Him piteous of his youth soft disengage.
 I played a while obedient to the fair.
 Love free as air spreads his light wings and flies.

Then active still and unconfined his mind
 Explores the vast extent of ages past.

But there is yet a liberty unsung
By poets and by senators unpraised.

Exceptions.

I will marry a wife beautiful as the Houries.
He was a man able to speak upon doubtful questions.
These are the persons anxious for the change.
Are they men worthy of confidence and support ?

RULE IX.

Poverty wants some things ; avarice all things.
Honesty has one face ; flattery two.
One king is too soft and easy ; an other too fiery.
Mankind's esteem they court ; and he his own :
Theirs the wild chase of false felicities ;
His the compos'd possession of the true.

RULE X.

My desire is to live in peace.
The great difficulty was to compel them to pay their debts.
To strengthen our virtue God bids us trust in him.
I made no bargain with you to live always drudging.
To sum up all her tongue confessed the shrew.
To proceed my own adventure was still more laughable.

We come not with design of wasteful prey
To drive the country force the swains away.

RULE XI.

Having given this answer he departed.
Some sunk to beasts find pleasure end in pain.
Eased of her load subjection grows more light-
Death still draws nearer never seeming near.
He lies full low gored with wounds and weltering in his blood.
Kind is fell Lucifer compared to thee.
Man considered in himself is helpless and wretched.
Like scattered down by howling Eurus blown.
He with wide nostrils snorting skims the wave.
Youth is properly speaking introductory to manhood.

Exceptions.

He kept his eye fixed on the country before him.
They have their part assigned them to act.
Years will repair not the injuries done by him.

RULE XII.

Yes we both were philosophers.
 However providence saw fit to cross our design.
 Besides I know that the eye of the public is upon me.
 The fact is certainly much otherwise.
 For nothing surely can be more inconsistent.

RULE XIII.

For in such retirement the soul is strengthend.
 It engages our desires ; and in some degree satisfies them.
 But of every Christian virtue piety is an essential part.
 The English verb is variable ; as *love lovest loves*.

RULE XIV.

In a word charity is the soul of social life.
 By the bowstring I can repress violence and fraud.
 Some by being too artful forfeit the reputation of probity.
 With regard to morality I was not indifferent.

RULE XV.

Lo earth receives him from the bending skies !
 Behold I am against thee O inhabitant of the valley !

RULE XVI.

I would never consent never never never.
 His teeth did chatter chatter chatter still.
 Come come come come—to bed to bed to bed.

RULE XVII.

He cried " Cause every man to go out from me."
 " Almet " said he " remember what thou hast seen."
 I answered " Mock not thy servant who is but a worm before thee."

II.—The Semicolon.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma and the semicolon where they are required.

RULE I.

" Man is weak " answered his companion " knowledge is more than equivalent to force."
 To judge rightly of the present we must oppose it to the past for all judgment is comparative and of the future nothing can be known.
 " Content is natural wealth " says Socrates to which I shall add " luxury is artificial poverty."

Converse and love mankind might strongly draw
When love was liberty and nature law.

RULE II.

Be wise to-day 'tis madness to defer.
The present all their care the future his.
Wit makes an enterpriser sense a man.
Ask thought for joy grow rich and hoard within.
Song soothes our pains and age has pains to soothe.
Here an enemy encounters there a rival supplants him.
Our answer to their reasons is No to their scoffs nothing.

RULE III.

In Latin there are six cases namely the nominative the genitive the dative the accusative the vocative and the ablative.

Most English nouns form the plural by adding *s* as *boy boys nation nations king kings bay bays*.

Bodies are such as are endued with a vegetable soul as plants a sensitive soul as animals or a rational soul as the body of man.

III.—The Colon.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma, the semi-colon, and the colon where they are required.

RULE I.

Death wounds to cure we fall we rise we reign.
Bliss!—there is none but unprecious bliss.
That is the gem sell all and purchase that.
Beware of usurpation God is the judge of all.

RULE II.

I have the world here before me I will review it at leisure surely happiness is somewhere to be found.

A melancholy enthusiast courts persecution and when he cannot obtain it afflicts himself with absurd penances but the holiness of St. Paul consisted in the simplicity of a pious life.

Observe his awful portrait and admire
Nor stop at wonder imitate and live.

RULE III.

Such is our Lord's injunction "Watch and pray."
He died praying for his persecutors "Father forgive them they know not what they do."

On his cane was inscribed this motto "*Festina lente*."

IV.—The Period.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma, the semi-colon, the colon, and the period, where they are required.

RULE I.

Then appeared the sea and the dry land the mountains rose and the rivers flowed the sun and moon began their course in the skies herbs and plants clothed the ground the air the earth and the waters were stored with their respective inhabitants at last man was made in the image of God

In general those parents have most reverence who most deserve it for he that lives well cannot be despised

RULE II.

Civil accomplishments frequently give rise to fame but a distinction is to be made between fame and true honor the statesman the orator or the poet may be famous while yet the man himself is far from being honored

RULE III.

Glass was invented in Eng by Benalt a monk A D 664
The Roman Era U C commenced B C 753
Here is the Literary Life of S T Coleridge Esq

V.—The Dash.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the dash, and such other points as are required.

RULE I.

You say *famous* very often and I don't know exactly what it means a *famous* uniform *famous* doings What does *famous* mean

O why *famous* means Now don't you know what *famous* means It means It is a word that people say It is the fashion to say it It means it means *famous*

RULE II.

But this life is not all there is there is full surely another state abiding us And if there is what is thy prospect O remorseless obdurate Thou shalt hear it would be thy wisdom to think thou now hearest the sound of that trumpet which shall awake the dead Return O yet return to the Father of mercies and live

The future pleases Why The present pains
But that's a secret yes which all men know

VI.—Note of Interrogation.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the note of interrogation, and such other points as are required.

RULE I.

Does nature bear a tyrant's breast
Is she the friend of stern control
Wears she the despot's purple vest
Or fetters she the free-born soul

Why should a man whose blood is warm within
Sit like his grandsire cut in alabaster

Who art thou courteous stranger and from whence
Why roam thy steps to this abandon'd dale

RULE II.

Who bid the stork Columbus-like explore
Heavens not his own and worlds unknown before
Who calls the council states the certain day
Who forms the phalanx and who points the way

RULE III.

Ask of thy mother Earth why oaks are made
Taller and stronger than the weeds they shade
They asked me who I was and whither I was going

VII.—Note of Exclamation.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the note of exclamation, and such other points as are necessary.

RULE I.

Alas how is that rugged heart forlorn
Behold the victor vanquish'd by the worm
Bliss sublunary bliss proud words and vain

RULE II.

O Popular Applause what heart of man
Is proof against thy sweet seducing charms
More than thy balm O Gilead heals the wound

RULE III.

How often have I loitered o'er thy green
Where humble happiness endear'd each scene
What black despair what horror fills his heart

VIII.—Marks of Parenthesis.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the marks of parenthesis, and such other points as are necessary.

RULE I.

And all the question wrangle e'er so long
Is only this If God has placed him wrong
And who what God foretells who speaks in things
Still louder than in words shall dare deny

RULE II.

Say was it virtue more though Heav'n ne'er gave
Lamented Digby sunk thee to the grave
Where is that thrift that avarice of time
O glorious avarice thought of death inspires
And oh the last last what can words express
Thought reach the last last silence of a friend

IX.—Promiscuous.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the points which they require.

As one of them opened his sack he espied his money
They cried out the more exceedingly Crucify him
The soldiers counsel was to kill the prisoners
It is my son's coat an evil beast hath devoured him
Peace of all worldly blessings is the most valuable
By this time the very foundation was removed
The only words he uttered were I am a Roman citizen
Some distress either felt or feared gnaws like a worm
How then must I determine Have I no interest If I have not I am station-
ed here to no purpose *Harris*
In the fire the destruction was so swift sudden vast and miserable as to
have no parallel in story
Dionysius the tyrant of Sicily was far from being happy
I ask now Verres what thou hast to advance
Excess began and sloth sustains the trade
Fame can never reconcile a man to a death bed
They that sail on the sea tell of the danger
Be doers of the word and not hearers only
The storms of wint'ry time will quickly pass
Here hope that smiling angel stands
Disguise I see thou art a wickedness

There are no tricks in plain and simple faith
 True love strikes root in reason passion's foe
 Two gods divide them all Pleasure and Gain
 I am satisfied My son has done his duty
 Remember Almet the vision which thou hast seen
 I beheld an enclosure beautiful as the gardens of paradise
 The knowledge which I have received I will communicate
 But I am not yet happy and therefore I despair
 Wretched mortals said I to what purpose are you busy
 Bad as the world is respect is always paid to virtue
 In a word he views men in the clear sunshine of charity
 This being the case I am astonished and amazed
 Yet at the same time the man himself undergoes a change
 You heroes regard nothing but glory
 Take care lest while you strive to reach the top you fall
 Proud and presumptuous they can brook no opposition
 Nay some awe of religion may still subsist
 Then said he Lo I come to do thy will O God
 As for me behold I am in your hand
 Now I Paul myself beseech you
 He who lives always in public cannot live to his own soul whereas he
 who retires remains calm
 Therefore behold I even I will utterly forget you
 This text speaks only of those to whom it speaks
 Yea he warmeth himself and saith Aha I am warm
 King Agrippa believest thou the prophets

To whom can riches give repute or trust
 Content or pleasure but the good and just *Pope*

To him no high no low no great no small
 He fills he bounds connects and equals all *Id*

Reason's whole pleasure all the joys of sense
 Lie in three words health peace and competence *Id*

Not so for once indulg'd they sweep the main
 Deaf to the call or hearing hear in vain *Anon*

Say will the falcon stooping from above
 Smit with her varying plumage spare the dove *Pope*

Throw Egypt's by and offer in its stead
 Offer the crown on Berenice's head *Id*

Falsely luxurious will not man awake
 And springing from the bed of sloth enjoy
 The cool the fragrant and the silent hour *Thomson*

Yet thus it is nor otherwise can be
 So far from aught romantic what I sing *Young*
 Thyself first know then love a self there is
 Of virtue fond that kindles at her charms *Id*
 How far that little candle throws his beams
 So shines a good deed in a naughty world *Shakspeare*
 You have too much respect upon the world
 They lose it that do buy it with much care *Id*
 How many things by season season'd are
 To their right praise and true perfection *Id*
 Canst thou descend from converse with the skies
 And seize thy brother's throat for what a clod *Young*

II.—UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

Pronunciation.

Pronunciation, as distinguished from elocution, is the utterance of words taken separately.

Pronunciation requires a knowledge of the just powers of the letters in all their combinations, and of the force and seat of the accent.

The **just powers** of the letters are those sounds which are given to them by the best readers.

Accent is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular syllable of a word, whereby that syllable is distinguished from the rest ; as, *grám-mar*, *gram-má-ri-an*.

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented.

When the word is long, for the sake of harmony or distinctness, we often give a secondary or less forcible accent to another syllable ; as, to the last of *tém-per-a-túre*, and to the second of *in-dém-ni-fi-cá-tion*.

A full and open pronunciation of the long vowel sounds, a clear articulation of the consonants, a forcible and well-placed accent, and a distinct utterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the elegant speaker.

Elocution.

Elocution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and form discourse.

Elocution requires a knowledge, and right application, of emphasis, pauses, inflections, and tones.

I.—**Emphasis** is the peculiar stress of voice which we lay upon some particular word or words in a sentence, which are thereby distinguished from the rest, as being more especially significant.

II.—**Pauses** are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to relieve the speaker, and to render language intelligible and pleasing. The duration of the pauses should be proportionate to the degree of connection between the parts of the discourse.

III.—**Inflections** are those peculiar variations of the human voice, by which a continuous sound is made to pass from one note, key, or pitch, into another. The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher or shriller note, is called the *rising* or *upward inflection*. The passage of the voice from a higher to a lower or graver note, is called the *falling* or *downward inflection*. These two opposite inflections may be heard in the following examples: 1. *The rising*, "Do you mean to *gó*?" 2. *The falling*, "When will you *gò*?"

OBS. — Questions that may be answered by *yes* or *no*, require the rising inflection; those that demand any other answer, must be uttered with the falling inflection.

IV.—**Tones** are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. They are what Sheridan denominates "the language of emotions." And it is of the utmost importance that they be natural, unaffected, and rightly adapted to the subject and to the occasion; for upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elocution.

III.—FIGURES.

A **figure**, in grammar, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, formation, construction, or application, of words. There are, accordingly, figures of Orthography, figures of Etymology, figures of Syntax, and figures of Rhetoric. When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than in prose, and several of them are merely poetic licenses.

Figures of Orthography.

A **figure of orthography** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary or true spelling of a word.

The principal figures of orthography are two; namely, **Mi-me'-sis** and **Ar'-cha-ism**.

I.—**Mimesis** is a ludicrous imitation of some mistake or mispronunciation of a word, in which the error is mimicked by a false spelling, or the taking of one word for another; as, "*Maister*, says he, have you any *very* good *weal* in your *vállet*?"—"Ay, he was *porn* at Monmouth, captain Gower."—*Shak.* "I will *description* the matter to you, if you be *capacity* of it."—*Id.*

"*Perdigious!* I can hardly stand."—*Lloyd.*

II.—An **archaism** is a word or phrase expressed according to ancient usage, and not according to our modern orthography; as, "*Newe grene chese of smalle clammynes comfortethe a hotte stomake.*"—T. PAYNEL: *Tooke's Diversions*, ii., 132.

"With him was rev'rend Contemplation *pight*,
Bow-bent with *eld*, his beard of snowy hue."—*Beattie.*

Figures of Etymology.

A **figure of etymology** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary formation of a word.

The principal figures of etymology are eight; namely, **a-phær'-e-sis**, **pros'-the-sis**, **syn'-co-pe**, **a-poc'-o-pe**, **Par-a-go'-ge**, **di-ær'-e-sis**, **syn-ær'-e-sis**, and **tme'-sis**.

I.—**Aphæresis** is the elision of some of the initial letters of a word; as, '*gainst*, '*gan*, '*neath*,—for *against*, *began*, *beneath*.

II.—**Prosthesis** is the prefixing of an expletive syllable to a word; as, *adown*, *appaid*, *bestrown*, *evanished*, *yclad*,—for *down*, *paid*, *strown*, *vanished*, *clad*.

III.—**Syncope** is the elision of some of the middle letters of a word: as, *med'cine*, for *medicine*; *e'en*, for *even*; *o'er*, for *over*; *conq'ring*, for *conquering*; *se'nnight*, for *sevensnight*.

IV.—**Apocope** is the elision of some of the final letters of a word: as, *tho'*, for *though*; *th'*, for *the*; *t'other*, for *the other*.

V.—**Paragoge** is the annexing of an expletive syllable to a word: as, *withouten*, for *without*; *deary*, for *dear*; *Johnny*, for *John*.

VI.—**Diæresis** is the separating of two vowels that might form a diphthong: as, *coöperate*, not *cooperate*; *aëronaut*, not *æronaut*; *orthoëpy*, not *orthæpy*.

VII.—**Synæresis** is the sinking of two syllables into one: as, *seest*, for *seëst*; *tacked*, for *tack-ed*; *drowned*, for *drown-ed*.

OBS.—When a vowel is entirely suppressed in pronunciation (whether retained in writing or not), the consonants connected with it fall into another syllable; thus, *tried*, *triest*, *loved* or *lov'd*, *lovest* or *lov'st*, are monosyllables; except in solemn discourse, in which the *e* is generally retained and made vocal.

VIII.—**Tmesis** is the inserting of a word between the parts of a compound; as, "On *which* side *soever*."—"To us *ward*."—"To God *ward*."

Figures of Syntax.

A **figure of syntax** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

The principal figures of syntax are five; namely, **el-lip'-sis**, **ple'-o-nasm**, **syl-lep'-sis**, **en-al'-la-ge**, and **hy-per'-ba-ton**.

Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words which are necessary to complete the construction, but not necessary to convey the meaning. Such words are said to be *understood*; because they are received as belonging to the sentence, though they are not uttered.*

Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical. There may be an omission of any of the parts of speech, or even of a whole clause; but the omission of articles or interjections can scarcely constitute a proper ellipsis. Examples:—

Of the *Article*; as, “A man and [a] woman.”—“The day, [the] month, and [the] year.”

Of the *Noun*; as, “The common [law] and the statute law.”—“The twelve [apostles].”—“One [book] of my books.”—“A dozen [bottles] of wine.”

Of the *Adjective*; as, “There are subjects proper for the one, and not [proper] for the other.”—*Kames*.

Of the *Pronoun*; as, “I love [him] and [I] fear him.”—“The estates [which] we own.”

Of the *Verb*; as, “Who did this? I” [did it].—“To whom thus Eve, yet sinless” [spoke].

Of the *Participle*; as, “That [being] o’er, they part.”

* There can never be an ellipsis of any thing which is either unnecessary to the construction or necessary to the sense, for to say what we mean and nothing more never can constitute a deviation from the ordinary grammatical construction of words. As a figure of Syntax, therefore, the *ellipsis* can be only of such words as are so evidently suggested to the reader, that the writer is as fully answerable for them as if he had written them. To suppose an ellipsis where there is none, or to overlook one where it really occurs, is to pervert or mutilate the text, in order to accommodate it to the parser's ignorance of the principles of syntax. There never can be either a general uniformity or a self-consistency in our methods of parsing, or in our notions of grammar, till the true nature of an ellipsis is clearly ascertained; so that the writer may distinguish it from a *blundering omission* that impairs the sense, and the reader be debarred from an *arbitrary insertion* of what would be cumbrous and useless.

Of the *Adverb* ; as, "He spoke [*wisely*] and acted wisely."—"Exceedingly great and [*exceedingly*] powerful."

Of the *Conjunction* ; as, "The fruit of the Spirit is love, [*and*] joy, [*and*] peace, [*and*] long-suffering, [*and*] gentleness, [*and*] goodness, [*and*] faith, [*and*] meekness, [*and*] temperance."—*Gal. v., 22.* The repetition of the conjunction is called *Polysyndeton* ; and the omission of it, *Asyndeton*.

Of the *Preposition* ; as, "[*On*] this day."—" [*In*] next month."—"He departed [*from*] this life."—"He gave [*to*] me a book."—"To walk [*through*] a mile."

Of the *Interjection* ; as, "Oh ! the frailty, [*Oh !*] the wickedness of men."

Of a *Phrase* or a *Clause* ; as, "The active commonly do more than they are bound to do ; the indolent, [*commonly do*] less" [*than they are bound to do*].

Pleonasm is the introduction of superfluous words. This figure is allowable only, when, in animated discourse, it abruptly introduces an emphatic word, or repeats an idea to impress it more strongly :

"*He that hath ears to hear, let him hear !*"—"All ye inhabitants of the world, *and dwellers on the earth !*"—"There shall not be left one stone upon another, *that shall not be thrown down.*"—"I know thee *who thou art.*"—*Bible.*

A pleonasm is sometimes impressive and elegant, but an unemphatic repetition of the same idea is one of the worst faults of bad writing.

Syllepsis is agreement formed according to the figurative sense of a word, or the mental conception of the thing spoken of, and not according to the literal or common use of the term ; it is therefore, in general, connected with some figure of rhetoric :

"The *Word* was made flesh and dwelt among us, and we beheld *his* glory."—*John i., 14.* "Then Philip went down to the *city* of Samaria, and preached Christ unto *them.*"—*Acts viii., 5.* "While *Evening* draws *her* crimson curtains round."—*Thomson.*

Enallage is the use of one part of speech, or of one modification for another. This figure borders closely upon

solecism ; * and, for the stability of the language, it should be sparingly indulged. There are, however, several forms of it which can appeal to good authority ; as,

“ *You know that you are Brutus that speak this.*”—*Shak.*

“ *They fall successive [ly], and successive [ly] rise.*”—*Pope.*

“ *Than whom [who] none higher sat.*”—*Milton.*

“ *Sure some disaster has befell*” [befallen].—*Gay.*

“ *So furious was that onset’s shock,*

Destruction’s gates at once unlock.”—*Hogg.*

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words :

“ *He wanders earth around.*”—*Cowper.* “ *Rings the world with the vain stir.*”—*Id.* “ *Whom therefore ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.*”—*Acts.*

This figure is much employed in poetry. A judicious use of it confers harmony, variety, strength, and vivacity upon composition. But care should be taken lest it produce ambiguity or obscurity.

Figures of Rhetoric.

A **figure of rhetoric** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words. Some figures of this kind are commonly called *Tropes*, i. e., *turns*.

Numerous departures from perfect simplicity of diction occur in almost every kind of composition. They are mostly founded on some similitude or relation of things, which, by the power of imagination, is rendered conducive to ornament or illustration.

The principal figures of rhetoric are fourteen ; namely, **Sim’-i-le**, **Met’-a-phor**, **Al’-le-gor-y**, **Me-ton’-y-my**, **Syn-ec’-do-che**, **Hy-per’-bo-le**, **Vis’-ion**, **A-pos’-tro-phe**, **Per-son’-i-fi-ca’-tion**, **Er-o-te’-sis**, **Ec-pho-ne’-sis**, **An-tith’-e-sis**, **Cli-max**, and **I’-ro-ny**.

* Deviations of this kind are, *in general*, to be considered solecisms ; otherwise the rules of grammar would be of no use or authority. There are, however, some changes of this kind, which the grammarian is not competent to condemn, though they do not accord with the ordinary principles of construction,

A **simile** is a simple and express comparison, and is generally introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so* :

“At first, *like thunder's distant tone*,
The rattling din came rolling on.”—Hogg.

“Man, *like the generous vine*, supported lives ;
The strength he gains, is from th' embrace he gives.”—Pope.

A **metaphor** is a figure that expresses the resemblance of two objects by applying either the name, or some attribute adjunct, or action of the one, directly to the other :

“His eye was *morning's brightest ray*.”—Hogg.

“Angler in the *tides* of fame.”—Id.

“Beside him *sleeps* the warrior's bow.”—Langhorne.

“Wild *fancies* in his moody brain,
Gambol'd unbridled and unbound.”—Hogg.

“Speechless, and fix'd in all the *death* of wo.”—Thom.

An **allegory** is a continued narration of fictitious events, designed to represent and illustrate important realities. Thus the Psalmist represents the *Jewish nation* under the symbol of a *vine* :

“Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt : thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root ; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars.”—Ps. lxxx., 8.

OBS.—The *allegory*, agreeably to the foregoing definition of it, includes most of those similitudes which in the Scriptures are called *parables* ; it includes also the better sort of *fables*. The term *allegory* is sometimes applied to a *true history* in which something else is intended than is contained in the words literally taken. [See *Gal.* iv., 24.] In the *Scriptures* the term *fable* denotes an idle and groundless story. [See 1 *Tim.* iv., 1 ; and 2 *Pet.* i., 16.]

A **metonymy** is a change of names. It is founded on some such relation as that of *cause* and *effect*, of *subject* and *adjunct*, of *place* and *inhabitant*, of *container* and *thing contained*, or of *sign* and *thing signified* :

“God is our *salvation* ;” i.e., *Saviour*.—“He was the *sigh* of her secret soul ;” i.e., the *youth* she loved.—“They smote the *city* ;” i.e., *citizens*.—“My son, give me thy *heart* ;” i.e., *affection*.—“The *scepter* shall not depart from Judah ;” i.e., *kingly power*,

Synecdoche is the naming of the whole for a part, or of a part for the whole ; as, "This *roof* [i.e., house] protects you."—"Now the *year* [i.e., summer] is beautiful."

Hyperbole is an extravagant exaggeration, in which the imagination is indulged beyond the sobriety of truth :

"The sky *shrunk upward with unusual dread,*
And trembling Tiber *div'd beneath his bed.*"—*Dryden.*

Vision, or Imagery, is a figure by which the speaker represents the objects of his imagination as actually before his eyes, and present to his senses :

"I see the dagger-crest of Mar !
I see the Moray's silver star
Wave o'er the cloud of Saxon war,
That up the lake comes winding far !"—*Scott.*

Apostrophe is a turning from the regular course of the subject, into an animated address ; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death ! where is thy sting ? O Grave ! where is thy victory ?"—*1 Cor. xv.*

Personification is a figure by which, in imagination, we ascribe intelligence and personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities :

"The *Worm*, aware of his intent,
Harangued him thus, right eloquent."—*Cowper.*
"Lo, steel-clad *War* his gorgeous standard rears !"—*Rogers.*
"Hark ! *Truth* proclaims, thy triumphs cease."—*Id.*

Erotesis is a figure in which the speaker adopts the form of interrogation, not to express a doubt, but, in general, confidently to assert the reverse of what is asked :

"Hast thou an arm like God ? or canst thou thunder with a voice like him ?"—*Job xl.* "He that planted the ear, shall he not hear ? he that formed the eye, shall he not see ?"—*Psa. xciv.*

Ecphonesis is a pathetic exclamation, denoting some violent emotion of the mind :

"O liberty !—O sound once delightful to every Roman ear !—O sacred privilege of Roman citizenship !—once sacred—now trampled upon !" —*Cicero.* "O that I had wings like a dove ! for then would I fly away and be at rest !" —*Psa. lv., 6.*

Antithesis is a placing of things in opposition to heighten their effect by contrast :

“ Contrasted faults through all his manners reign ;
Though *poor, luxurious* ; though *submissive, vain* ;
Though *grave, yet trifling* ; *zealous, yet untrue* ;
And e'en in *penance, planning sins* anew.”—*Goldsmith*.

Climax is a figure in which the sense is made to advance by successive steps, to rise gradually to what is more and more important and interesting, or to descend to what is more and more minute and particular :

“ And beside this, giving all diligence, add to your faith, virtue ; and to virtue, knowledge ; and to knowledge, temperance ; and to temperance, patience ; and to patience, godliness ; and to godliness, brotherly kindness ; and to brotherly kindness, charity.”—2 *Peter* 1.

Irony is a figure in which the speaker sneeringly utters the direct reverse of what he intends shall be understood :

“ We have, to be sure, great reason to believe the modest man would not ask him for a debt, when he pursues his life.”—*Cicero*.

Exercises—Figures.

Praxis VI.—Prosodical.

In the Sixth Praxis, it is required of the pupil to point out and explain the several Figures of Orthography, of Etymology, of Syntax, and of Rhetoric ; to define each ; and to change the passage into the ordinary style or expression. The pupil may also be exercised on these selections, in the rules of Punctuation, and in the principles of Utterance and Versification.

I.—Figures of Orthography.

“ *Fery goot* : I will make a *prief* of it in my note-book ; and we will afterwards *'ork* upon the cause with as great *discreetly* as we can.”—*Shak*.

“ *Vat* is you sing ? I do not like *dese* toys. Pray you, go and *vetch* me in my closet *un boitier verd* ; a box, a *green-a* box. Do *intend vat* I speak ? a *green-a* box.”—*Id*.

“ I *ax'd* you what you had to sell. I am fitting out a *wessel* for *Wenice*, loading her with *various keinds* of *provisions*, and *wittualling* her for a long *woyage* ; and I want several *undred* weight of *weal, wenison*, etc., with plenty of *inyons* and *winegar*, for the *preservation* of *ealth*,”

"None [else are] so desperately *evill*, as they that may *bee* good and will not: or have *beene* good and are not."—*Rev. John Rogers*, 1620. "A Carpenter finds his work as *hee* left it, but a Minister shall find his *sett* back. You need preach continually."

"Here *whilom* *ligg'd* th' Esopus of his age,
But call'd by Fame, in soul *yprick'd* deep."—*Thomson*.

"It was a fountain of Nepenthe rare,
Whence, as Dan Homer sings, huge *pleasaunce* grew."—*Id.*

II.—Figures of Etymology.

Bend '*gainst* the steepy hill thy breast,
Burst down like torrent from its crest.—*Scott*.

'*Tis* mine to teach *th'* inactive hand to reap
Kind nature's bounties, o'er the globe *diffus'd*.—*Dyer*

Alas! alas! how impotently true
Th' aërial pencil forms the scene anew.

Here a deformed monster *joy'd* to won,
Which on fell rancour ever was *ybent*.—*Lloyd*.

Withouten trump was proclamation made.—*Thomson*.

The gentle knight, who saw their rueful case,
Let fall *adown* his silver beard some tears.

"Certes," quoth he, "it is not *e'en* in grace.
T' undo the past and eke your broken years."—*Id.*

Vain *tamp'ring* has but *foster'd* his disease;
'*Tis desp'rate*, and he sleeps the sleep of death.—*Cowper*.

I have a pain upon my forehead here—
Why *that's* with watching; *'twill* away again.—*Shakspeare*.

I'll to the woods, among the happier brutes;
Come, *let's* away; hark! the shrill horn resounds.—*Smith*.

What prayer and supplication *soever* be made.—*Bible*.

By the grace of God we have had our conversation in the world, and more abundantly to you *ward*.—*Id.*

III.—Figures of Syntax.

ELLIPSIS.

And now he faintly kens the bounding fawn,
A [—] villager [—] abroad at early toil.—*Beattie*.

The cottage curs at [—] early pilgrim bark.—*Id.*

'*Tis* granted, and no plainer truth appears,
Our most important [—] are our earliest years.—*Cowper*,

To earn her aid, with fix'd and anxious eye,
He looks on nature's [—] and on fortune's course ;
Too much in vain.—*Akenside*.

True dignity is his, whose tranquil mind
Virtue has rais'd above the things [—] below ;
Who, ev'ry hope and [—] fear to Heav'n resign'd,
Shrinks not, though Fortune aim her deadliest blow.—*Beattie*.

For longer in that paradise to dwell,
The law [—] I gave to nature, him forbids.—*Milton*.

So little mercy shows [—] who needs so much.—*Cowper*.

Bliss is the same [—] in subject, as [—] in king ;
In [—] who obtain defence, and [—] who defend.—*Pope*.

Man made for kings ! those optics are but dim
That tell you so—say rather, they [—] for him.—*Cowper*.

Man may dismiss compassion from his heart,
But God will never [—————].—*Id.*

Mortals whose pleasures are their only care,
First wish to be impos'd on, and then are [—].—*Id.*

Vigor [—] from toil, from trouble patience grows.—*Beattie*.

Where now the rill melodious, [—] pure, and cool,
And meads, with life, and mirth, and beauty crown'd ?—*Id.*

How dead the vegetable kingdom lies !
How dumb the tuneful [—————] !—*Thomson*.

Self-love and Reason to one end aspire,
Pain [—] their aversion, pleasure [—] their desire ;
But greedy that its object would devour,
This [—] taste the honey, and not wound the flower.—*Pope*.

PLEONASM.

According to their deeds, *accordingly* he will repay ; fury to his adversaries, recompense to his enemies.—*Bible*.

My head is filled with dew, *and my locks with the drops of the night*.—*Solomon's Song* v., 2.

Thou hast chastised me, *and I was chastised*, as a bullock unaccustomed to the yoke : turn thou me, *and I shall be turned* ; for thou art the Lord my God.—*Jer.* xxxi., 18.

Consider the *lilies* of the field how *they* grow.—*Matt.* vi., 28.

He that glorieth, let *him* glory in the Lord.—*2 Cor.* x., 17.

He too is witness, noblest of the train

That waits on man, the flight-performing *horse*.—*Cowper*.

SYLLEPSIS.

Thou art Simon the son of Jona: thou shalt be called *Cephas*; which is, by interpretation, a stone.—*John* i., 42.

Thus saith the Lord of hosts: "Behold I will break the bow of *Elam*, the chief of *their* might."—*Jer.* xlix., 35.

Behold I lay in Zion a *stumbling-stone* and *rock* of offense; and whosoever believeth on *him* shall not be ashamed.—*Rom.* ix., 33.

Thus *Conscience* pleads *her* cause within the breast,
Though long-rebell'd against, not yet suppress'd.—*Cowper*.

Knowledge is proud that *he* has learned so much;
Wisdom is humble that *he* knows no more.—*Id.*

For those the *race* of Israel oft forsook
Their living *strength*, and unfrequented left
His righteous altar, bowing lowly down
To bestial gods.—*Milton*.

ENALLAGE.

Let me tell *you*, Cassius, *you* yourself
Are much condemned to have an itching palm,
To sell and mart *your* offices for gold.—*Shakspeare*.

Come, Philomelus; let us *instant* go,
O'erturn his bow'rs, and lay his castle low.—*Thomson*.

Then palaces shall rise; the joyful son
Shall finish what the short-lived sire *begun*.—*Pope*.

Such was that temple built by Solomon,
Than *whom* none richer reign'd o'er Israel.—*G. Brown*.

He spoke: with fatal eagerness we *burn*,
And *quit* the shores, undestin'd to return.—*Day*.

Still as he pass'd, the nations he *sublimes*.—*Thomson*.
Sometimes, with early morn, he mounted *gay*.—*Id.*

HYPERBATON.

Such *resting found the sole* of unblest feet.—*Milton*.

Yet, though successful, *will the toil* delight.—*Thomson*.

Where, 'midst the changeful scen'ry ever new,
Fancy a thousand wondrous *forms* describes.—*Beattie*.

Yet so much bounty is in God, such grace,
That who advance his glory, not their own,
Them he himself to glory will advance.—*Milton*.

But *apt* the mind or fancy is to rove
 Uncheck'd, and of her roving is no *end*.—*Id.*
 No quick *reply* to dubious questions make;
 Suspense and caution still prevent mistake.—*Denham.*

IV.—Figures of Rhetoric.

SIMILE.

Human greatness is short and transitory, *as the odor of incense in the fire*.—*Dr. Johnson.*

Terrestrial happiness is of short continuance: *the brightness of the flame is wasting its fuel, the fragrant flower is passing away in its own odors*.—*Id.*

Thy nod is *as the earthquake that shakes the mountains*; and thy smile, *as the dawn of the vernal day*.—*Id.*

Plants rais'd with tenderness are seldom strong;
 Man's coltish disposition asks the thong;
 And without discipline, the fav'rite child,
Like a neglected forester, runs wild.—*Cowper.*

METAPHOR.

Cathmon, thy name is a pleasant *gale*.—*Ossian.*

Rolled into himself he flew, wide on the *bosom of winds*. The old oak *felt* his departure, and *shook* its whistling head.—*Id.*

Carazan gradually lost the inclination to do good, as he acquired the power; and as the *hand of time* scattered snow upon his head, the *freezing influence* extended to his bosom.—*Hawkesworth.*

The sun *grew weary* of gilding the palaces of Morad; the *clouds of sorrow* gathered round his head; and the *tempest of hatred* roared about his dwelling.—*Dr. Johnson.*

The *tree of knowledge*, blasted by disputes,
 Produces sapless leaves instead of fruits.—*Denham.*

ALLEGORY.

"But what think ye?—A certain man had two sons; and he came to the first, and said, 'Son, go work to-day in my vineyard.' He answered and said, 'I will not'; but afterward he repented, and went. And he came to the second, and said likewise. And he answered and said, 'I go, sir:' and went not. Whether of them twain did the will of his father?" They say unto him, "The first."—*Matt. xxi, 28.*

METONYMY.

Swifter than a whirlwind, flies the leaden *death*.—*Heroey.*

"Be all the dead forgot," said Foldath's bursting *wrath*. "Did not I fail in the field?"—*Ossian.*

Their *furrow* oft the stubborn glebe has broke.—*Gray*.

Firm in his love, resistless in his hate,

His arm is *conquest*, and his frown is *fate*.—*Day*.

At length the *world*, renew'd by calm repose,

Was strong for toil; the dappled morn arose.—*Parnell*.

What modes of sight betwixt each wide extreme,

The mole's dim curtain and the lynx's *beam*!

Of hearing, from the *life* that fills the flood,

To *that* which warbles through the vernal wood!—*Pope*.

SYNECDOCHE.

'Twas then his *threshold* first receiv'd a guest.—*Parnell*.

For yet by swains alone the world he knew,

Whose *feet* came wand'ring o'er the nightly dew.—*Id.*

Flush'd by the spirit of the genial *year*,

Now from the virgin's cheek a fresher bloom

Shoots, less and less, the live carnation round.—*Thomson*.

HYPERBOLE.

I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice; his spear, the blasted fir; his shield, the rising moon; he sat on the shore, like a cloud of mist on the hill.—*Ossian*.

At which the universal host up sent

A shout that tore Hell's concave, and beyond

Frighted the reign of Chaos and old Night.—*Milton*.

Will all great Neptune's ocean wash this blood

Clean from my hand? No; this my hand will rather

The multitudinous seas incarnadine,

Making the green one red.—*Shakspeare*.

Endless tears flow down in streams.—*Swift*.

VISION.

How mighty is their defense who reverently trust in the arm of God! How powerfully do they contend who fight with lawful weapons! Hark! 'tis the voice of eloquence, pouring forth the living energies of the soul; pleading, with generous indignation, the cause of injured humanity against lawless might, and reading the awful destiny that awaits the oppressor!—I see the stern countenance of despotism overawed! I see the eye fallen that kindled the elements of war! I see the brow relaxed that scowled defiance at hostile thousands! I see the knees tremble that trod with firmness the embattled field! Fear has entered that heart which ambition had betrayed into violence! — The

tyrant feels himself a man, and subject to the weakness of humanity! —Behold! and tell me, is that power contemptible which can thus find access to the sternest hearts?—*G. Brown.*

APOSTROPHE.

Yet still they breathe destruction, still go on
Inhumanly ingenious to find out
New pains for life, new terrors for the grave;
Artificers of death! Still monarchs dream
Of universal empire growing up
From universal ruin. *Blast the design,
Great God of Hosts! nor let thy creatures fall
Unpitied victims at Ambition's shrine.—Porteus.*

PERSONIFICATION.

Hail, sacred *Polity*, by *Freedom* rear'd!
Hail, sacred *Freedom*, when by *Law* restrain'd!
Without you, what were man? A grov'ling herd,
In darkness, wretchedness, and want enchain'd.—*Beattie.*
Let cheerful *Mem'ry*, from her purest cells,
Lead forth a goodly train of *Virtues* fair,
Cherish'd in early youth, now paying back
With tenfold usury the pious care.—*Porteus.*

EROTESIS.

He that chastiseth the heathen, shall not he correct? he that teacheth man knowledge, shall not he know?—*Psalms xciv., 10.*

Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots? then may ye also do good, that are accustomed to do evil.—*Jer. xiii., 33.*

ECPHONESIS.

O that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears, that I might weep day and night for the slain of the daughter of my people! O that I had in the wilderness a lodging place of way-faring men, that I might leave my people, and go from them!—*Jeremiah ix., 1.*

ANTITHESIS.

On this side modesty is engaged; on that, impudence: on this, chastity; on that, lewdness: on this, integrity; on that, fraud: on this, piety; on that, profaneness: on this, constancy; on that, fickleness; on this, honor; on that, baseness: on this, moderation; on that, unbridled passion.—*Cicero.*

She, from the rending earth, and bursting skies,
Saw gods descend, and fiends infernal rise;
Here fix'd the dreadful, there the blest abodes;
Fear made her devils, and weak hope her gods.—*Pope.*

CLIMAX.

Virtuous actions are necessarily approved by the awakened conscience; and when they are approved, they are commended to practice; and when they are practiced, they become easy; and when they become easy, they afford pleasure; and when they afford pleasure, they are done frequently; and when they are done frequently, they are confirmed by habit; and confirmed habit is a kind of second nature.

IRONY.

And it came to pass at noon, that Elijah mocked them, and said, "Cry aloud; for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is in [*on*] a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked!" —1 *Kings* xviii., 27.

Some lead a life unblamable and just,
 Their own dear virtue their unshaken trust;
 They never sin—or if (as all offend)
 Some trivial slips their daily walk attend,
 The poor are near at hand, the charge is small,
 A slight gratuity atones for all.—*Cowper*.

IV.—VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the art of arranging words into lines of correspondent length, so as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

Quantity.

The **quantity** of a syllable is the relative portion of time occupied in uttering it. In poetry, every syllable is considered to be either *long* or *short*. A long syllable is reckoned to be equal to two short ones.

OBS. 1.—The quantity of a syllable does not depend on the sound of the vowel or diphthong, but principally on the degree of accentual force with which the syllable is uttered, whereby a greater or less portion of time is employed. The open vowel sounds are those which are the most easily protracted, yet they often occur in the shortest and feeblest syllables.

OBS. 2.—Most monosyllables are variable, and may be made either long or short, as suits the meter, or rhythm. In words of greater length, the accented syllable is always long; and a syllable immediately before or after that which is accented, is always short.

Rhyme.

Rhyme is the similarity of sound between the last syllables of different lines or half lines. **Blank verse** is verse without rhyme.

OBS.—The principal rhyming syllables are almost always long. Double rhyme adds one short syllable; triple rhyme, two. Such syllables are redundant in iambic and anapestic verses.

Poetic Feet.

A **line of poetry** consists of successive combinations of syllables, called *feet*. A **poetic foot**, in English, consists either of two or of three syllables.

The principal English feet are the **iambus**, the **Trochee**, the **Anapest**, and the **Dactyl**.

The **iambus**, or **iamb**, is a poetic foot consisting of a short syllable and a long one; as, *bētrāy, cōnfēss*.

The **Trochee**, or **Choree**, is a poetic foot consisting of a long syllable and a short one; as, *hātefūl, pētīsh*.

The **Anapest** is a poetic foot consisting of two short syllables and one long one; as, *cōntrāvēne, ācquīēscē*.

The **Dactyl** is a poetic foot consisting of one long syllable and two short ones; as, *lābōrēr, pōssiblē*.

We have, accordingly, four principal kinds of verse, or poetic measure; **iambic**, **Trochaic**, **Anapestic**, and **Dactylic**.

OBS. 1.—The more pure these several kinds are preserved, the more exact and complete is the chime of the verse. But poets generally indulge some variety; not so much, however, as to confound the drit of the rythmical pulsations.

OBS. 2.—Among the occasional diversifications of meter, are sometimes found, or supposed, sundry other feet, which are called *secondary*: as, the *Spondee*, a foot of two long syllables; the *Pyrrhic*, of two short; the *Moloss*, of three long syllables; the *Tribrach*, of three short; the *Amphibrach*, a long syllable with a short one on each side; the *Amphimac*, *Amphimacer*, or *Cretic*, a short syllable with a long one on each side; the *Bacchy*, a short syllable and two long ones; the *Antibacchy*, or *Hy-pobacchy*, two long syllables and a short one. Yet few, if any, of these

feet, are really necessary to a sufficient explanation of English verse ; and the adopting of so many is liable to the great objection, that we thereby produce different modes of measuring the same lines.

OBS. 3.—Sometimes, also, verses are variegated by what is called the *pedal cæsura*, or *cesure* (i. e., *cutting*), which is a single long syllable counted by itself as a foot. For, despite the absurd suggestions of many grammarians and prosodists to the contrary, all metrical deficiencies and redundancies embrace nothing but *short* syllables, and the number of long ones in a line is almost always the number of *feet* which compose it ; as,

“ Keeping | *time*, | *time*, | *time*,
In a | sort of | Runic *rhyme*.”—*E. A. Poe*.

Scanning.

Scanning, or **Scansion**, is the dividing of verses into the feet which compose them, according to the several orders of poetic numbers, or the different kinds of meter.

OBS.—When a syllable is wanting, the verse is said to be *catalectic* ; when the measure is exact, the line is *acatalectic* ; when there is a redundant syllable, it forms *hypermeter*, or a line *hypercatalectic*.

Order I.—Iambic Verse.

In **iambic verse**, the stress is laid on the even syllables, and the odd ones are short. It consists of the following measures :—

Measure 1st.—Iambic of Eight Feet, or Octometer :

“ O āl | yě pēo|-plě, clāp | yōur hānds, | ānd wīth | trīūm|-phānt vōic|-
ēs sīng ;

No force | the might|-y pow'r | withstands | of God | the u|-nivers|-al
King.”

OBS.—Each couplet of this verse is now commonly reduced to, or exchanged for, a simple stanza of four tetrameter lines ; thus,—

“ The hour | is come | — the cher|-ish'd hour,
When from | the bus|-y world | set free,
I seek | at length | my lone|-ly bower,
And muse | in si|-lent thought | on thee.”—*Hook*.

Measure 2d.—Iambic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter :

“ Thě Lōrd | dēscēnd|-ēd frōm | ābōve, | ānd bōw'd | thě hēav|-ēns
high.”

OBS.—Modern poets have divided this kind of verse, into alternate lines of four and of three feet; thus,—

“O blind | tō ēach | ĩndŭl|-gēnt āim
Of pōw'r | sŭprēme |-lŷ wise,
Who fan|-cy hap|-piness | in aught
The hand | of heav'n | denies ! ”

Measure 3d.—Iambic of Six Feet, or Hexameter :

“Thŷ rēalm | fōrēv|-ēr lāsts, | thŷ ōwn | Mēssī|-āh rēigns.”

OBS.—This is the *Alexandrine* ; it is seldom used except to complete a stanza in an ode, or occasionally to close a period in heroic rhyme. French heroics are similar to this.

Measure 4th.—Iambic of Five Feet, or Pentameter :

“Fōr prāise | tōo dēar|-lŷ lōv'd | ōr wārm|-lŷ sōught,
Enfee|-bles all | inter|-nal strength | of thought.”
“With sōl|-ēmn ād|-ōrā|-tiōn dōwn | thēy cāst
Their crowns, | inwove | with am|-arant | and gold.”

OBS. 1.—This is the regular English **heroic**. It is, perhaps, the only measure suitable for blank verse.

OBS. 2.—The **elegiac stanza** consists of four heroics rhyming alternately ; as,

“Enough | has Heav'n | indulg'd | of joy | below,
To tempt | our tar|-riance in | this lov'd | retreat ;
Enough | has Heav'n | ordain'd | of use|-ful wo,
To make | us lang|-uish for | a hap|-pier seat.”

Measure 5th.—Iambic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter :

“Thē jōys | ābōve | āre ūn|-dērstōod
And rel|-ish'd on|-ly by | the good.”

Measure 6th.—Iambic of Three Feet, or Trimeter :

“Blŭe lġht|-nġngs sġnge | thē wāves,
And thun|-der rends | the rock.”

Measure 7th.—Iambic of Two Feet, or Dimeter :

“Thēir lōve | ānd āwe
Supply | the law.”

Measure 8th.—Iambic of One Foot, or Monometer :

“Hōw bright,
The light ! ”

OBS. 1.—Lines of fewer than seven syllables are seldom found, except in connection with longer verses.

OBS. 2.—In iambic verse, the first foot is often varied, by introducing a trochee ; as,

“Pānēts | ānd sŭns | rūn lāw|-lēss thrōugh | thē skŷ.”

OBS. 3.—By a synæresis of the two short syllables, or perhaps by mere substitution, an anapest may sometimes be employed for an iambus; or a dactyl, for a trochee; as,

“*O'er man|-y a fro|-zen, man|-y a fi|-er-y Alp.*”

Order II.—Trochaic Verse.

In **trochaic verse**, the stress is laid on the odd syllables, and the even ones are short. Single-rhymed trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one. This kind of verse is the same as iambic would be without the initial short syllable. Iambics and trochaics often occur in the same poem.

Measure 1st.—Trochaic of Eight Feet, or Octometer :

“Once up|-on a | midnight | dreary, | while I | pondered, ' weak and
weary,

Over | *mānŷă* | quaint and | *cūrŷōŷ* | volume | of for|-gotten | lore,
While I | nodded, | nearly | napping, | sudden|-ly there | came a |
tapping,

As of | some one | gently | rapping, | rapping | at my | chamber
| door.”

Measure 2d.—Trochaic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter :

“Hasten, | Lord, to | rescue | me, and | set me | safe from | trouble ;
Shame thou | those who | seek my | soul, re|-ward their | mischief |
double.”

Single Rhyme :

“Night and | morning | were at | meeting | over | Water|-loo ;
Cocks had | sung their | *earliest* | greeting ; | faint and | low they |
crew.”

Measure 3d.—Trochaic of Six Feet, or Hexameter :

“On *ă* | mōuntain | strēch'd bē|-nēath *ă* | hōarŷ | willōw,
Lay a | shepherd | swain, and | view'd the | rolling | billow.”

Single Rhyme :

“Lonely | in the | forest, | subtle | from his | birth,
Lived | a necro|-mancer, | wondrous | son of | earth.”

Measure 4th.—Trochaic of Five Feet, or Pentameter :

“Virtūe's | brīght'nīng | rāy shall | bēam fōr | ēvēr.”

Single Rhyme :

“Idlē | āftēr | dīnnēr, | īn hīs | chāir,
Sat a | farmer, | ruddy, | fat, and | fair.”

Measure 5th.—Trochaic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter :

“Rōund ā | hōlŷ | cālm đĩf|-fūsĩng,
Love of | peace and | lonely | musing.”

Single Rhyme :

“Rēstlēss | mōrtāls | tōil fōr | nāught,
Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sought.”

Measure 6th.—Trochaic of Three Feet, or Trimeter :

“Whēn ōur | hēarts āre | mōurnĩng.”

Single Rhyme :

“In thē | dāys ōf | old,
Stories | plainly | told.”

Measure 7th.—Trochaic of Two Feet, or Dimeter :

“Fāncŷ | viēwĩng,
Joys en|-suing.”

Single Rhyme :

“Tūmũlt | cēase,
Sink to | peace.”

Measure 8th.—Trochaic of One Foot, or Monometer :

“Chāngĩng,
Ranging.”

Order III.—Anapestic Verse.

In **anapestic verse** the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapestic line may be an iambus.

Measure 1st.—Anapestic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter :

“At thē clōse | ōf thē dāy, | whēn thē hām | lēt Ƴs still,
And mor|-tals the sweets | of forget|-fulness prove.”

Hypermeter with Double Rhyme :

“In a word, | so complete|-ly forestall'd | were the wish|-es,
Even har|-mony struck | from the noise | of the dish|-es.”

Hypermeter with Triple Rhyme :

“Lean Tom, | when I saw | him, last week, | on his *horse* | *awry*,
Threaten'd loud|-ly to turn | me to stone | with his *sor*|-*cery*.”

Measure 2d.—Anapestic of Three Feet, or Trimeter :

“I ām mōn|-ārch ōf āll | I sũrvēy;
My right | there is none | to *dispute*.”

Measure 3d.—Anapestic of Two Feet, or Dimeter :

“ Whēn I lōok | ōn mŷ bōys,
They renew | all my joys.”

Measure 4th.—Anapestic of One Foot, or Monometer :

“ On thē lānd
Let me stand.”

Order IV.—Dactylic Verse.

In pure **dactylic verse** the stress is laid on the first syllable of each successive three ; that is, on the first, the fourth, the seventh, the tenth syllable, etc. Full dactylic generally forms triple rhyme. When one of the final short syllables is omitted, the rhyme is double ; when both are omitted, single. Dactylic with single rhyme is the same as anapestic would be without its initial short syllables. Dactylic measure is rather uncommon, and is seldom perfectly regular.

Measure 1st.—Dactylic of Eight Feet, or Octometer :

“ Nīmrōd thē | hūntēr wās | mightŷ īn | hūntīng, ānd | fāmed ās thē |
rūlēr ōf | citĭes ōf | yōre ;
Babel, and | Erech, and | Accad, and | Calneh, from | Shinar's fair |
region his | name afar | bore.”

Measure 2d.—Dactylic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter :

“ Out of the | kingdom of | Christ shall be | gathered, by | angels o'er |
Satan vic-torious,
All that of-fendeth, that | lieth, that | faileth to | honor his | name
ever | glorious.”

Measure 3d.—Dactylic of Six Feet, or Hexameter :

“ Time, thou art | ever in | motion, on | wheels of the | days, years, and
| ages ;
Restless as | waves of the | ocean, when | Eurur or | Boreas | rages.”

Example without Rhyme :

“ This is the | forest pri-meval ; but | where are the | hearts that be-
neath it
Leap'd like the | roe, when he | hears in the | woodland the | voice of
the | huntsman ? ”

Measure 4th.—Dactylic of Five Feet, or Pentameter :

“ Now thou dost | welcome me, | welcome me, | from the dark | sea,
Land of the | beautiful, | beautiful | land of the | free.”

Measure 5th.—Dactylic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter :

“Bōys wīll ān|-tīcīpāte, | lāvīsh, ānd | dīssīpāte
 All thāt yōur | būsŷ pāte | hōardēd wīth | cāre ;
 And, in their | foolishness, | passion, and | mulishness,
 Charge you with | churlishness, | spurning your | pray’r.”

Measure 6th.—Dactylic of Three Feet, or Trimeter :

“Evēr sīng | mērrīlŷ, | mērrīlŷ.”

Measure 7th.—Dactylic of Two Feet, or Dimeter :

“Frēe frōm sā | tīcŷŷ,
 Care, and anx | iety,
 Charms in va | riety,
 Fall to his | share.”

Measure 8th.—Dactylic of One Foot, or Monometer :

“Fēarfūllŷ,
 Tearfully.”

Exercises in Scanning.

Divide the following verses into the feet which compose them, and distinguish by marks the long and the short syllables.

DEITY.

Alone thou sitst above the everlasting hills,
 And all immensity of space thy presence fills:
 For thou alone art God ;—as God thy saints adore thee ;
 Jehovah is thy name ;—they have no gods before thee.—*G. B.*

HEALTH.

Up the dewy mountain, Health is bounding lightly ;
 On her brows a garland, twin’d with richest posies :
 Gay is she, elate with hope, and smiling sprightly ;
 Redder is her cheek, and sweeter, than the rose is.—*G. B.*

IMPENITENCE.

The impenitent sinner whom mercy empowers,
 Dishonors that goodness which seeks to restore ;
 As the sands of the desert are water’d by showers,
 Yet barren and fruitless remain as before.—*G. Brown.*

PIETY.

Holy and pure are the pleasures of piety,
 Drawn from the fountain of mercy and love ;
 Endless, exhaustless, exempt from satiety,
 Rising unearthly, and soaring above.—*G. Brown.*

A SIMILE.

The bolt that strikes the tow'ring cedar dead,
Oft passes harmless o'er the hazel's head.—*G. Brown.*

ANOTHER SIMILE.

"Yet to the general's voice they soon obey'd
Innumerable. As when the potent rod
Of Amram's son, in Egypt's evil day,
Wav'd round the coast, up call'd a pitchy cloud
Of locusts, warping on the eastern wind,
That o'er the realm of impious Pharaoh hung
Like night, and darken'd all the land of Nile."—*Milton.*

ELEGIAC STANZA.

Thy name is dear—'tis virtue balm'd in love ;
Yet e'en thy name a pensive sadness brings.
Ah ! wo the day, our hearts were doom'd to prove,
That fondest love but points affliction's stings !—*G. Brown.*

CUPID.

Zephyrs, moving bland, and breathing fragrant
With the sweetest odors of the spring,
O'er the winged boy, a thoughtless vagrant,
Slumb'ring in the grove, their perfumes fling.—*G. Brown.*

DIVINE POWER.

When the winds o'er Gennesaret roar'd,
And the billows tremendously rose,
The Saviour but utter'd the word ;
They were hush'd to the calmest repose.—*G. Brown.*

INVITATION.

Come from the mount of the leopard, spouse,
Come from the den of the lion ;
Come to the tent of thy shepherd, spouse,
Come to the mountain of Zion.—*G. Brown.*

ADMONITION.

In the days of thy youth,
Remember thy God :
O ! forsake not his truth,
Incur not his rod.—*G. Brown.*

COMMENDATION.

Constant and duteous,
Meek as the dove,
How art thou beauteous,
Daughter of love !—*G. Brown.*

EDWIN, AN ODE.

I. STROPHE.

Led by the power of song, and nature's love,
 Which raise the soul all vulgar themes above,
 The mountain grove
 Would Edwin rove,
 In pensive mood, alone ;
 And seek the woody dell,
 Where noontide shadows fell,
 Cheering,
 Veering,
 Moved by the zephyr's swell.
 Here nursed he thoughts to genius only known,
 When naught was heard around
 But soothed the rest profound
 Of rural beauty on her mountain throne.
 Nor less he loved (rude nature's child)
 The elemental conflict wild ;
 When, fold on fold, above was piled
 The watery swathe, careering on the wind.
 Such scenes he saw
 With solemn awe,
 As in the presence of th' Eternal Mind.
 Fixed he gazed,
 Tranced and raised,
 Sublimely rapt in awful pleasure undefined.

II. ANTISTROPHE.

Reckless of dainty joys, he finds delight
 Where feebler souls but tremble with affright.
 Lo ! now, within the deep ravine,
 A black impending cloud
 Infolds him in its shroud,
 And dark and darker glooms the scene.
 Through the thicket streaming,
 Lightnings now are gleaming ;
 Thunders rolling dread,
 Shake the mountain's head ;
 Nature's war
 Echoes far
 O'er ether borne.

That flash
 The ash
 Has scathed and torn!
 Now it rages;
 Oaks of ages,
 Writhing in the furious blast,
 Wide their leafy honors cast;
 Their gnarled arms do force to force oppose:
 Deep rooted in the creviced rock,
 The sturdy trunk sustains the shock,
 Like dauntless hero firm against assailing foes.

III. EPODE.

'O Thou who sits above these vapors dense,
 And rul'st the storm by thine omnipotence
 Making the collied cloud thy car,
 Coursing the winds, thou rid'st afar,
 Thy blessings to dispense.
 The early and the latter rain,
 Which fertilize the dusty plain,
 Thy bounteous goodness pours.
 Dumb be the atheist tongue abhorred!
 All nature owns thee, sovereign Lord!
 And works thy gracious will;
 At thy command the tempest roars,
 At thy command is still.
 Thy mercy o'er this scene sublime presides;
 'Tis mercy forms the veil that hides
 The ardent solar beam;
 While from the volleyed breast of heaven,
 Transient gleams of dazzling light,
 Flashing on the balls of sight,
 Make darkness darker seem.
 Thou mov'st the quick and sulph'rous leven—
 The tempest-driven
 Cloud is riven;
 And the thirsty mountain-side
 Drinks gladly of the gushing tide.'

So breathed young Edwin, when the summer shower
 From out that dark o'erchamb'ring cloud,
 With lightning flash and thunder loud,
 Burst in wild grandeur o'er his solitary bower.—*G. Brown.*

Questions for Review.

I.—PUNCTUATION.

Of what does Prosody treat?

What is *Punctuation*?

What are the principal points, or marks?

What pauses are denoted by the first four points?

What pauses are required by the other four?

What is the general use of the comma?

How many rules for the comma are there?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *simple sentences*?—Rule 2d, of *simple members*?—Rule 3d, of *more than two words*?—Rule 4th, of *only two words*?—Rule 5th, of *words in pairs*?—Rule 6th, of *words put absolute*?—Rule 7th, of *words in apposition*?—Rule 8th, of *adjectives*?—Rule 9th, of *finite verbs*?—Rule 10th, of *infinitives*?—Rule 11th, of *participles*?—Rule 12th, of *adverbs*?—Rule 13th, of *conjunctions*?—Rule 14th, of *prepositions*?—Rule 15th, of *interjections*?—Rule 16th, of *words repeated*?—Rule 17th, of *dependent quotations*?

II.—PUNCTUATION.

How many and what exceptions are there to Rule 1st for the comma?—to Rule 2d?—to Rule 3d?—to Rule 4th?—to Rule 5th?—to Rule 6th?—to Rule 7th?—to Rule 8th?—to Rule 9th?—to Rule 10th?—to Rule 11th?—to Rule 12th?—to Rule 13th?—to Rule 14th?—to Rule 15th?—to Rule 16th?—to Rule 17th?

When are different words said to be in the same construction?

III.—PUNCTUATION.

What is the general use of the semicolon?

How many rules are there for the semicolon?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *compound members*?—Rule 2d, of *simple members*?—Rule 3d, of *words in apposition*?

What is the general use of the colon?

How many rules are there for the colon?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *additional remarks*?—Rule 2d, of *greater pauses*?—Rule 3d, of *independent quotations*?

What is the general use of the period?

How many rules are there for the period?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *distinct sentences*?—Rule 2d, of *allied sentences*?—Rule 3d, of *abbreviations*?

IV.—PUNCTUATION.

What is the use of the dash?

How many rules are there for the dash?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *abrupt pauses*?—Rule 2d, of *emphatic pauses*?—Rule 3d, of *faulty dashes*?

What is the use of the eroteme, or note of interrogation?

How many rules are there for it?—what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *questions direct*?—Rule 2d, of *questions united*?—Rule 3d, of *questions indirect*?

What is the use of the ecphoneme, or note of exclamation?

How many rules are there for it?—What are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *interjections*?—Rule 2d, of *invocations*?—Rule 3d, of *exclamatory questions*?

V.—PUNCTUATION.

What is the use of the curves, or marks of parenthesis?

How many rules are there for them?—What are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of *the parenthesis*?—Rule 2d, of *included points*?

What is said about other marks?

What is the use of the apostrophe?—of the hyphen?—of the diæresis?—of the acute accent?—of the grave accent?—of the circumflex?—of the breve?—of the macron?—of the ellipsis?—of the caret?—of the brace?—of the section?—of the paragraph?—of the quotation points?—of the crotchets?—of the index?—of the asterisk, the obelisk, the double dagger, and the parallels?—of the asterism?—of the cedilla?

[Having correctly answered the foregoing questions, the pupil should be taught to apply what he has learned; and, for this purpose, he may be required to read the preface to this volume, or a portion of any other accurately pointed book, and to assign a reason for every mark he finds.]

VI.—UTTERANCE.

What is *Utterance*?—What does it include?

What is pronunciation?—What does pronunciation require?

What are the just powers of the letters?

What is accent?—Is every word accented?

Can a word have more than one accent?

What four things distinguish the elegant speaker?

What is elocution?—What does elocution require?—What is emphasis?

What are pauses?—What is said of their duration?

What are inflections?—What is called the rising inflection?—What is called the falling inflection?—How are these inflections exemplified?—How are they used in asking questions?

What are tones?—Why do they deserve particular attention?

VII.—FIGURES.

What is a *Figure* in grammar?—How many kinds of figures are there?

What is a figure of orthography?—Name the figures of this kind.

What is mimesis?—What is an archaism?

What is a figure of etymology?

How many and what are the figures of etymology?

What is aphaeresis?—prosthesis?—syncope?—apocope?—paragoge?—diæresis?—synæresis?—tmesis?

What is a figure of syntax?—How many and what are the figures of syntax?

What is ellipsis in grammar?—Are sentences often elliptical?

How can there be an ellipsis of the article?—the noun?—the adjective?—the pronoun?—the verb?—the participle?—the adverb?—the conjunction?—the preposition?—the interjection?—a phrase or a clause?
 What is pleonasm?—When is this figure allowable?
 What is syllepsis?—enallage?—hyperbaton?—What is said of hyperbaton?

VIII.—FIGURES.

What is a figure of rhetoric?—What name have some such figures?
 Do figures of rhetoric often occur?—On what are they founded?
 How many and what are the principal figures of rhetoric?
 What is a simile?—a metaphor?—an allegory?—a metonymy?—synecdoche?—hyperbole?—vision?—apostrophe?—personification?—erotesis?—ecphonesis?—antithesis?—climax?—irony?

IX.—VERSIFICATION.

What is *Versification*?—What is the *quantity* of a syllable?
 How is quantity denominated?—How is it said to be proportioned?
 On what does quantity depend?—What sounds are the most easily lengthened?
 What words are variable in quantity?—What syllables are fixed?
 What is rhyme?—What is blank verse?
 Of what does a *line* of poetry consist?—Of what does a *foot* consist?
 What are the principal English feet?
 What is an iambus?—a trochee?—an anapest?—a dactyl?
 How many kinds of verse are there?
 What is scanning, or scansion?

X.—VERSIFICATION.

What syllables are accented in an iambic line?
 What are the several measures of iambic verse?
 What syllables are accented in a trochaic line?
 What are the several measures of trochaic verse?
 What syllables are accented in an anapestic line?
 What are the several measures of anapestic verse?
 What syllables are accented in a dactylic line?
 What are the several measures of dactylic verse?

COMPOSITION.

AFTER studying carefully the Rules for Punctuation (page 252), the pupil will be sufficiently advanced to apply to his own compositions the various principles and rules requisite for their full correction. The following suggestions are designed to afford a guide to the teacher and pupils for a series of graded exercises in composition, in continuation of the practical **language lessons** already interspersed through this work.

In connection with these exercises, the pupils should be required to study carefully the principles and rules contained in Appendix II.

Preliminary Exercises.

1. *Read a story, biographical sketch, or incident in history; and require the pupils to reproduce it in their own language, as far as possible.*

This exercise should be continued sufficiently long to familiarize the pupils with the narrative style of composition, and to teach them to avoid the awkward expressions and repetitions customary with those untrained in this branch of composition. The simplest and easiest narratives should at first be selected.

2. *Write out, or otherwise give to the pupils, a full account of any particular incident or event, and require them to abridge or condense it, omitting all but the most important circumstances.*

3. *Write a brief account of any incident or event, and require the pupils to expand it, adding any circumstances which they may conceive could have existed or occurred in connection with the facts stated,*

Both of these exercises of *condensation* and *expansion* should be continued for some time, as they cultivate special faculties of the mind, most important to be addressed in training the pupil in the production and expression of thought.

4. *Select a piece of poetry, and require the pupils to express the same thoughts in prose, using a plainer and less figurative style.*

Be careful to select only such pieces as are fully adapted to the pupils' comprehension.

5. *Require the pupils to write an analysis of any piece of prose or poetry, giving the topics treated, with the arguments and illustrations employed, etc.*

Begin with easy pieces, and advance gradually to more difficult ones. Do not give argumentative pieces at first. This exercise, when skillfully employed, is a most excellent one, as it will go far to impart to the mind habits of regular, logical thought.

6. *Require the pupils to write out criticisms of selected pieces, making observations on the thoughts, their arrangement and relation to the subject, as well as the modes of expression employed.*

These exercises will prepare the mind for writing compositions on miscellaneous subjects. This is a task which should never be imposed without the preliminary exercises. Many pupils are permanently disgusted with composition by being required to perform this impossible task.

Original Composition.

7. *Assign a subject, or theme, and suggest the mode of treatment, writing down for the pupils the topics which should be considered and discussed, with the arrangement to be employed.*

This exercise should be pursued until the pupils' minds have become accustomed to the discovery of topics. It is designed to afford training in what is called, in rhetoric, *Invention*.

During the exercise, the teachers should require the pupils to suggest the topics, before deciding himself what is proper.

8. *Reverse the above exercise; that is, select an appropriate subject, and require the pupils to discover the topics which should*

be treated under it, and to write, by properly arranging them, an analysis of the mode of treatment.

This should be done at first so as to afford a brief sketch or outline, which afterward may be expanded or filled in, by suggesting illustrations, arguments, etc., under each topic. As considerable exercise of this kind will be needed, the pupils should be required to write out in full only an occasional composition; but the analysis should be copied in a book, and preserved by the pupil, for the next exercise, which is the writing of compositions on selected themes.

9. *Require the pupils to write compositions on subjects either selected for them or suggested by their own minds.*

It is preferable, at this stage, that the pupils should select their own subjects, as a general thing, in order to give full scope to the original suggestions of the mind, and to the unfolding of any special talent or genius for composition, which will often be found to show itself under the training here outlined, if it be faithfully persevered in.

LETTER-WRITING.

In connection with the above exercises, the pupils should be instructed in **letter-writing**. This will include the proper forms as shown below.

Heading.

The heading consists of the name of the place (sometimes the street and number) from which the letter is sent, and the date,—including month, day, and year. This should be written a line or two from the top of the page, and should be commenced so that it may end near the margin of the sheet at the right. Thus:—

New York, May 10, 1893.

Yale University,

New Haven, Conn.,

Oct. 15, 1892.

Or, when the street is mentioned :—

*43, 45 & 47 East 10th St.,
New York City, May 10, 1893.*

Observe the *order*—HOUSE, STREET, CITY, STATE, DATE—and the *capitals* and *pauses*.

If you live in the country, the order should be TOWN (COUNTY), STATE, DATE. If the town is large the County may be omitted, unless there are other towns in the State having the same name.

Put the following headings into correct form :

1. 317 pennsylvania ave washington dc june 9 1872
2. manchester vt bennington co dec 18 1891
3. indianapolis p o box 215 Ind. 30 sept 1885
4. kenmore house march 24 new york albany 1892

Address.

The address should follow on the next line, near the left side of the page, usually a little to the right of the body of the letter. The address consists of the name, with some title of respect or professional title, and residence. The residence is generally omitted except in formal letters and those in which the name is written at the close of the letter. Thus :—

For very formal letters :—

To a gentleman.

*Mr. Thomas H. Brown,
Springfield, Ill.
Sir,*

To a lady.

(Use Mrs. for a married lady.)

Miss Kate L. Fields,
Brooklyn, N. Y.
Madam,

In ordinary use :—

Mr. William A. Thompson.
Dear Sir,

Miss Minnie L. Knox.
Dear Madam,

To a company :—

Messrs. William Wood & Co.,
New York.
Gentlemen,

To the Board of Education,
146 Grand St., New York.
Gentlemen,

As implying greater intimacy :—

My dear Mr. Brown,
My dear Mrs. James,

Close the letter by writing the full name, title, and residence at the lower left-hand corner on the line below your own signature, as follows :—

Mr. Thomas Brown,
Philadelphia, Pa.

Mrs. Alexander James,
Cleveland, O.

In less formal letters, the name, title, and residence may be written below and at the left of the signature, at the end of the letter.

Other forms will be required according to circumstances, varying with the persons addressed and the terms of intimacy that exist. Thus :—

A. B. Palmer, Esq. ; John Porter, M.D. ; Dr. John Porter ; B. C. Baldwin, LL.D. ; Rev. H. J. Davis, or Rev. Mr. Davis ; Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D. ; etc.

When ladies are addressed, the following are customary :—

Miss Brown ; Miss Kate Field ; Mrs. George Burns ; Mrs. General Grant ; etc.

These may be followed by :

Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Sir, Sirs, Gentlemen ; Madam, Dear Madam, My dear Madam, Ladies ; Dear Mr. Hart, My dear Mr. Smith ; Dear Friend, My dear Friend ; etc.

The title *Hon.* is applied to persons holding high governmental positions ; *His Excellency* is sometimes applied to the President of the United States and to State Governors.

Put the following addresses into correct form :—

1. mr george n smith pittsburgh pa
2. rev p w stowell salem.mass
3. d n kinsman md long st columbus ohio
4. prof alfred jones johns hopkins university baltimore md
5. mrs samuel goodale waterbury conn.

Body.

The body of the letter should be commenced on the line next below the address, and a little to the right of it. The

style will vary with the character of the letter. Business letters should be formal, brief, and to the point. Friendly correspondence requires an easy, familiar style, for the acquisition of which the study of good models will be very useful.

A few specimens for the *opening* are here given :—

Yours of the 5th inst. is just received, etc.

Your favor of the 3d inst. is received, etc.

Your esteemed favor of the 10th inst. is at hand, etc.

I am in receipt of yours, etc.

Yours of the 20th ult. has remained unanswered until now, etc.

Closing.

The forms of closing, followed by the signature, are various. A few are here given :—

Respectfully yours ; Very respectfully yours ; Truly yours ; Yours truly ; Very truly yours ; Your obedient servant ; Your obedient, humble servant ; Yours cordially ; Faithfully yours ; Yours affectionately ; Ever affectionately yours ; As ever, your friend ; etc.

Write a letter of 100 words to a school friend. Write one to your teacher thanking her for her kindness in assisting you in your lessons after school.

Write a letter home, supposing yourself away at boarding-school.

Write a letter in reply to an advertisement for a boy in a publisher's office. State your qualifications.

In all you write REMEMBER to be *neat ; courteous ; careful* in spelling, punctuation, and capitals ; and, in business letters especially, *brief and definite*.

Superscription.

Write the name about midway between the top and bottom of the envelope ; under this write the address, commencing each line a little farther to the right than that above it. Great care should be taken to make the address as legible as possible.

Affix the postage stamp to the right-hand corner at the top of the envelope.

The following are examples :—

Stamp.

Mr. William Brown,
509 East Fourteenth Street,
New York.

Henry Smith, Esq.,
Buffalo,
N. Y.

Mrs. H. M. Sanders,
Milford,
Pike Co.,
Pa.

His Excellency A. B. Cornell,
Executive Chamber,
Albany,
N. Y.

Hon. R. P. Flower, M. C.,
House of Representatives,
Washington,
D. C.

QUALITIES OF STYLE.

STYLE is the particular manner in which a person expresses his conceptions by means of language. It is different from mere words, and is not to be regulated altogether by rules of construction. It always has some relation to the author's peculiar manner of thinking; and, being that sort of expression which his thoughts most readily assume, sometimes partakes, not only of what is characteristic of the man, but even of national peculiarity. The words which an author employs, may be proper, and so constructed as to violate no rule of syntax; and yet his style may have great faults.

To designate the general characters of style, such epithets as concise, diffuse,—neat, negligent,—nervous, feeble,—simple, affected,—easy, stiff,—perspicuous, obscure,—elegant, florid,—are employed. A considerable diversity of style, may be found in compositions all equally excellent in their kind. And, indeed, different subjects, as well as the different endowments by which genius is distinguished, require this diversity. But in forming his style, the learner should remember, that a negligent, feeble, affected, stiff, or obscure style, is always faulty; and that perspicuity, ease, simplicity, strength, and neatness, are qualities always to be aimed at.

In order to acquire a good style, the frequent practice of composing and writing something, is indispensably necessary. Without exercise and diligent attention, rules or precepts for the attainment of this object will be of no avail. When the learner has acquired such a knowledge of grammar, as to be in some degree qualified for the undertaking, he should devote a stated portion of his time to composition. This exercise will bring the powers of his mind into requisition, in a way that is well calculated to strengthen them. And if he has opportunity for reading, he may, by a diligent perusal of the best authors, acquire both language and taste, as well as sentiment; and these three are the essential qualifications of a good writer.

In regard to the qualities which constitute a good style, we can here offer no more than a few brief hints. With respect to words and phrases, particular attention should be paid to *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*; and, with respect to sentences, to *perspicuity*, *unity*, and *strength*. Under each of these heads, we shall arrange, in the form of short *precepts*, a few of the most important directions for the forming of a good style.

I.—Purity.

Purity of style consists in the use of such words and phrases only, as belong to the language which we write or speak,

PRECEPT 1.—Avoid the unnecessary use of foreign words or idioms: as *fraicheur*, *hauteur*, *delicatesse*, *politesse*, *noblesse*; he *repented himself*; it *serves to* an excellent purpose.

PRECEPT 2.—Avoid, on ordinary occasions, obsolete or antiquated words; as, *whilom*, *erewhile*, *whoso*, *albeit*, *moreover*, *aforetime*, *methinks*.

PRECEPT 3.—Avoid strange or unauthorized words; as, *flutteration*, *inspector*, *judgematical*, *incumberment*, *connexity*, *electerized*, *martyrized*.

PRECEPT 4.—Avoid bombast, or affectation of fine writing. It is ridiculous, however serious the subject: as, “Personifications, however rich the depictions, and unconstrained their latitude; analogies, however imposing the objects of parallel, and the media of comparison; can never expose the consequences of sin to the extent of fact, or the range of demonstration.”—*Anonymous*.

II.—Propriety.

Propriety of language consists in the selection and right construction, of such words as the best usage has appropriated to those ideas which we intend to express by them.

PRECEPT 1.—Avoid low and provincial expressions: such as, “*Says I*;”—“*Thinks I to myself*;”—“*To get into a scrape*;”—“*Stay here while I return*.”

PRECEPT 2.—In writing prose, avoid words and phrases that are merely poetical: such as, *morn*, *eve*, *plaint*, *lone*, *amid*, *oft*, *steepy*;—“*what time the winds arise*.”

PRECEPT 3.—Avoid technical terms; except where they are necessary, in treating of a particular art or science. In technology, they are proper.

PRECEPT 4.—Avoid the recurrence of words in different senses, or such a repetition of words as denotes paucity of language; as, “His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*.”—“Gregory *favoured* the undertaking, for no other reason than this, that the manager, in countenance, *favoured* his friend.”—“I *want* to go and see what he *wants*.”

PRECEPT 5.—Supply words that are wanting: thus, instead of saying, “This action increased his former services,” say, “This action increased *the merit* of his former services.”

PRECEPT 6.—Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions; as, “His *memory* shall be lost on the earth.”—“I long since learned to like nothing but what you *do*.”

PRECEPT 7.—Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, “I have observed that the superiority among these coffee-house politicians, proceeds from *an opinion* of gallantry and fashion.”—“These words do not convey even an *opaque* idea of the author’s meaning.”

PRECEPT 8.—Observe the natural order of things or events, and do not *put the cart before the horse*; as, “The scribes *taught and studied* the law of Moses.”—“They can neither *return to nor leave* their houses.”—“He tumbled, *head over heels*, into the water.”

III.—Precision.

Precision consists in avoiding all superfluous words, and adapting the expression exactly to the thought, so as to exhibit neither more nor less than is intended by the author.

PRECEPT 1.—Avoid a useless tautology, either of expression or sentiment: as in, “Return *again* ;—return *back again* ;—converse *together* ;—rise *up* ;—fall *down* ;—enter *in* ;—a mutual likeness to *each other* ;—the *latter end* ;—*liquid* streams ;—*grateful* thanks ;—the last of *all* ;—throughout the *whole* book.” “Whenever I go, he *always* meets me there.”—“Where is he *at* ? *In* there.”—“Nothing *else* but that.”—“It is odious and *hateful*.”—“His faithfulness and *fidelity* should be rewarded.”

PRECEPT 2.—Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous, and employ those words which are the most suitable ; as, “A diligent scholar may *acquire* knowledge, *gain* celebrity, *obtain* rewards, *win* prizes, and *get* high honor, though he *earn* no money.” These six verbs have nearly the same meaning, and yet they cannot well be changed.

IV.—Perspicuity.

Perspicuity consists in freedom from obscurity or ambiguity. It is a quality so essential, in every kind of writing, that for the want of it, no merit can atone. “Without this, the richest ornaments of style, only glimmer through the dark, and puzzle instead of pleasing the reader.”—*Blair*. Perspicuity, being the most important property of language, and an exemption from the most embarrassing defects, seems even to rise to a degree of positive beauty. We are naturally pleased with a style that frees us from all suspense in regard to the meaning ; that “carries us through the subject without embarrassment or confusion ; and that always flows like a limpid stream, through which we can see to the very bottom.”

PRECEPT 1.—Place adjectives, relative pronouns, participles, adverbs, and explanatory phrases, as near as possible to the words to which they relate, and in such a situation as the sense requires. The following sentences are deficient in perspicuity : “Reverence is the veneration paid to superior sanctity, *intmixed* with a certain degree of awe.” “The Romans understood liberty, *at least*, as well as we.” “Taste was never *made to cater* for vanity.”

PRECEPT 2.—In prose, avoid a poetic collocation of words.

PRECEPT 3.—Avoid faulty ellipses, and repeat all words necessary to preserve the sense. The following sentences require the words inserted in crotchets : “Restlessness of mind disqualifies us, both for the enjoyment of peace, and [*for*] the performance of our duty.”—*Murray's Key*. “The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God, than any [*other*] religion ever did.”—*Ibid*.

V.—Unity.

Unity consists in avoiding useless breaks or pauses, and keeping one object predominant throughout a sentence or paragraph. Every sentence, whether its parts be few or many, requires strict unity.

PRECEPT 1.—Avoid brokenness and hitching. The following example lacks the very quality of which it speaks : “But most of all, in a single sentence, is required the *strictest unity*. It may consist of parts, *indeed*, but *these parts* must be so closely bound together, as to make the impression upon the mind, of one object, not of many.”—*Murray's Grammar*.

PRECEPT 2.—Treat different topics in separate paragraphs, and distinct sentiments in separate sentences. Error : “The two volumes are, indeed, intimately *connected*, and *constitute* one uniform system of English grammar.”—*Murray's Preface*.

PRECEPT 3.—In the progress of a sentence, do not desert the principal subject in favor of adjuncts. Error: "To substantives belong gender, number, and case; and *they are all of the third person when spoken of, and of the second when spoken to.*"—*Murray's Grammar*.

PRECEPT 4.—Do not introduce parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in without diverting the mind too long from the principal subject.

VI.—Strength.

Strength consists in giving to the several words and members of a sentence, such an arrangement as shall bring out the sense to the best advantage, and present every idea in its due importance. A concise style is the most favorable to strength.

PRECEPT 1.—Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

PRECEPT 2.—A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

PRECEPT 3.—When things are to be compared or contrasted, their resemblance or opposition will be rendered more striking, if some resemblance in the language and construction be preserved.

PRECEPT 4.—It is, in general, ungraceful to end a sentence with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, which may either be omitted or be introduced earlier.

POETIC DICTION.

POETRY, as defined by Dr. Blair, "is the language of passion, or of enlivened imagination, formed, most commonly, into regular numbers." The style of poetry differs, in many respects, from that which is commonly adopted in prose. Poetic diction abounds in bold figures of speech, and unusual collocations of words. A great part of the figures which have been treated of under the head of prosody, are purely poetical. The primary aim of a poet is to please and to move; and, therefore, it is to the imagination, and the passions, that he speaks. He may, and he ought to, have it in his view to instruct and reform; but it is indirectly, and by pleasing and moving, that he accomplishes this end. The exterior and most obvious distinction of poetry is versification; yet there are some forms of verse so loose and familiar as to be hardly distinguishable from prose; and there is also a species of prose so measured in its cadences, and so much raised in its tone, as to approach very nearly to poetical numbers.

Poetical Peculiarities.

The following are some of the most striking peculiarities in which the poets indulge, and are indulged:—

I.—They very often omit the **articles**; as,

"What dreadful pleasure! there to stand sublime,
Like *shipwreck'd mariner* on *desert coast*!"—*Beattie*.

II.—They abbreviate many **nouns**; as, *amaze*, for *amazement*; *acclaim*, for *acclamation*; *consult*, for *consultation*; *corse*, for *corpse*; *eve*, or *even*, for *evening*; *fount*, for *fountain*; *helm*, for *helmet*; *lament*, for *lamentation*; *morn*, for *morning*; *plaint*, for *complaint*; *targe*, for *target*; *weal*, for *wealth*.

III.—They employ several nouns that are not used in prose, or are used but rarely; as, *benison*, *boon*, *emprise*, *fane*, *guerdon*, *guise*, *ire*, *ken*, *lore*, *meed*, *sire*, *steed*, *stithy*, *welkin*, *yore*.

IV.—They introduce the noun *self* after another noun of the possessive case; as,

1. "Affliction's semblance bends not o'er thy tomb,
Affliction's *self* deplores thy youthful doom."—*Byron*.
2. "Thoughtless of beauty, she *was* beauty's *self*."—*Thomson*.

V.—They place before the verb nouns, or other words, that usually come after it; and, after it, those that usually come before it; as,

1. "No jealousy *their dawn of love* o'ercast,
Nor blasted *were their wedded days* with strife."—*Beattie*.
2. "No *hive* hast thou of hoarded sweets,"
3. "Thy chain a *wretched weight* shall prove."—*Langhorne*.
4. "Follows the loosen'd aggravated *roar*."—*Thomson*.
5. "That *purple* grows the *primrose* pale,"—*Langhorne*.

VI.—They often place **adjectives** after their nouns ; as,

1. "Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings *barbaric*, pearl and gold."—*Milton*.
2. "Come, nymph *demure*, with mantle *blue*."

VII.—They ascribe qualities to things to which they do not literally belong ; as,

1. "Or *drowsy tinklings* lull the distant folds."—*Gray*.
2. "Imbitter'd more and more from *peevish day* to day."—*Thomson*.
3. "All thin and naked, to the *numb cold night*,"—*Shakspeare*.

VIII.—They use concrete terms to express abstract qualities (i.e., adjectives for nouns) ; as,

1. "Earth's meanest son, all trembling, prostrate falls,
And on the *boundless* of thy goodness calls."—*Young*.
2. "Meanwhile, whate'er of *beautiful* or *new*,
Sublime or *dreadful*, in earth, sea, or sky,
By chance or search was offered to his view,
He scann'd with curious and romantic eye."—*Beattie*.
3. "Won from the void and formless *infinite*."—*Milton*.

IX.—They substitute quality for manner (i.e., adjectives for adverbs) ; as,

1. "———— The stately-sailing swan,
Gives out his snowy plumage to the gale ;
And, arching *proud* his neck, with oary feet
Bears forward *ferce*, and guards his osier isle."—*Thomson*.
2. "Thither *continual* pilgrims crowded still."—*Id*.

X.—They form new compound epithets ; as,

1. "In *world-rejoicing* state, it moves sublime."—*Thomson*.
2. "The *dewy-skirted* clouds imbibe the sun."—*Id*.
3. "By brooks and groves in *hollow-whispering* gales."—*Id*.
4. "The violet of *sky-woven* vest."—*Langhorne*.
5. "A league from Epidamnium had we sailed,
Before the *always-wind-obeying* deep
Gave any tragic instance of our harm."—*Shakspeare*.

XI.—They connect the comparative degree to the positive ; as,

1. "*Near* and *more near* the billows rise."—*Merrick*.
2. "*Wide* and *wider* spreads the vale."—*Dyer*.
3. "*Wide* and *more wide*, the o'erflowings of the mind
Take every creature in, of every kind."—*Pope*.

XII.—They form many adjectives in *y*, which are not common in prose ; as, A *gleamy* ray,—*towery* height,—*steepy* hill,—*steely* casque,—*heapy* harvests,—*moony* shield,—*writhy* snake,—*stilly* lake,—*vasty* deep,—*paly* circlet.

XIII.—They employ adjectives of an abbreviated form ; as, *dread*, for *dreadful* ; *drear*, for *dreary* ; *ebon*, for *ebony* ; *hoar*, for *hoary* ; *lone*, for *lonely* ; *scant*, for *scanty* ; *slope*, for *sloping* ; *submiss*, for *submissive* ; *vermil*, for *vermilion* ; *yon*, for *yonder*.

XIV.—They employ several adjectives that are not used in prose, or are used but seldom ; as, *azure*, *blithe*, *boon*, *dank*, *darkling*, *darksome*, *doughty*, *dun*, *fell*, *rife*, *rapt*, *rueful*, *sear*, *sylvan*, *twain*, *wan*.

XV.—They employ personal **pronouns**, and introduce their nouns afterwards ; as,

1. "It curl'd not Tweed alone, that *breeze*."—*W. Scott*.
2. "Is it the lightning's quivering glance,
That on the thicket streams ;
Or do *they* flash on spear and lance,
The sun's retiring beams ?"—*Id*.

XVI.—They sometimes omit the relative, of the nominative case ; as,

“For is there aught in sleep *can charm* the wise ?”—*Thomson*.

XVII.—They omit the antecedent, or introduce it after the relative ; as,

1. “*Who* never fasts, no banquet e’er enjoys,
Who never toils or watches, never sleeps.”—*Armstrong*.
2. “*Who* dares think one thing and another tell,
My soul detests *him* as the gates of hell.”—*Pope’s Homer*.

XVIII.—They remove relative pronouns and other connectives, in the body of their clauses ; as,

1. “Parts the fine locks, her graceful head *that* deck.”—*Darwin*.
2. “Not half so dreadful rises to the sight
Orion’s dog, the year *when* autumn weighs.”—*Pope’s Homer*.

XIX.—They make intransitive **verbs** transitive ; as,

1. “———A while he stands,
Gazing the inverted landscape, half afraid
To *meditate* the blue profound below.”—*Thomson*.
2. “Still in harmonious intercourse, they *liv’d*
The rural day, and *talk’d* the flowing heart.”—*Id.*

XX.—They give to the imperative mood the first and the third person ; as,

1. “*Turn we* a moment fancy’s rapid flight.”—*Thomson*.
2. “*Be* man’s peculiar *work* his sole delight.”—*Beattie*.
3. “And what is reason ? *Be she* thus defin’d :
Reason is upright stature in the soul !”—*Young*.

XXI.—They employ *can*, *could*, and *would* as principal verbs transitive ; as,

1. “*What* for ourselves we *can*, is always ours.”
2. “Who does the best his circumstance allows,
Does well, acts nobly :—angels *could* no more.”—*Young*.
3. “*What would* this man ? Now upward will he soar,
And, little less than angel, *would* be more.”—*Pope*.

XXII.—They place the infinitive before the word on which it depends ; as,

“When first thy sire *to send* on earth
Virtue, his darling child, *design’d*.”—*Gray*.

XXIII.—They place the auxiliary after its principal ; as,

“No longer *heed* the sunbeam bright
That plays on Carron’s breast he *can*.”—*Langhorne*.

XXIV.—Before verbs they sometimes arbitrarily employ or omit prefixes ; as, *begird*, *bedim*, *evanish*, *emove* ; for *gird*, *dim*, *vanish*, *move* ; *ture*, *wail*, *wilder*, *reave* ; for *allure*, *bewail*, *bewilder*, *bereave*.

XXV.—They abbreviate verbs ; as, *list*, for *listen* ; *ope*, for *open*.

XXVI.—They employ several verbs that are not used in prose, or are used but rarely ; as, *appal*, *astound*, *brook*, *cower*, *doff*, *ken*, *wend*, *ween*, *throw*.

XXVII.—They sometimes imitate a Greek construction of the infinitive ; as,

1. “Who would not sing for Lycidas ? he knew
Himself *to sing*, and *build* the lofty rhyme.”—*Milton*.
2. “For not, *to have been* *tipp’d* in Lethè lake,
Could *save* the son of Thetis *from to die*.”—*Spenser*.

XXVIII.—They employ the **participles** more frequently than prose writers, and in a construction somewhat peculiar ; as,

1. "He came, and, standing in the midst, explain'd
The peace *rejected*, but the truce *obtain'd*."—*Pope*.
2. "As a poor miserable captive thrall
Comes to the place where he before had sat
Among the prime in splendor, now *depos'd*,
Ejected, *emptied*, *gar'd*, *unpitied*, *shunn'd*,
A spectacle of ruin or of scorn."—*Milton*.

XXIX.—They employ several **adverbs** that are not used in prose, or are used but seldom ; as, *oft*, *haply*, *inly*, *blithely*, *cheerily*, *deftly*, *felly*, *rifely*, *ruefully*, *starkly*, *yarely*.

XXX.—They give to adverbs a peculiar location ; as,

1. "Peeping from *forth* their alleys green."—*Collins*.
2. "Erect the standard *there* of ancient night."—*Milton*.
3. "The silence *often* of pure innocence
Persuades, when speaking fails."—*Shakspeare*.
4. "Where universal love *not* smiles around."—*Thomson*.
5. "Robs me of that which *not* enriches him."—*Shakspeare*.

XXXI.—They omit the introductory adverb *there* ; as,

"Was nought around but images of rest."—*Thomson*.

XXXII.—They employ the **conjunctions**, *or—or*, and *nor—nor*, as correspondents ; as,

1. "Or by the lazy Scheldt *or* wandering Po."—*Goldsmith*.
2. "Wealth heap'd on wealth, *nor* truth *nor* safety buys."—*Johnson*.
3. "Who by repentance is not satisfied,
Is *nor* of heaven, *nor* earth."—*Shakspeare*.

XXXIII.—They often place **prepositions** and their adjuncts, before the words on which they depend ; as,

"Against your fame *with* fondness hate combines ;
The rival batters, and the lover mines."—*Johnson*.

XXXIV.—They sometimes place the preposition after its object ; as,

1. "When beauty, *Eden's bowers within*,
First stretch'd the arm to deeds of sin,
When passion burn'd, and prudence slept,
The pitying angels bent and wept."—*Hogg*.
2. "The Muses fair, *these peaceful shades among*,
With skillful fingers sweep the trembling strings."—*Lloyd*.

XXXV.—They employ **interjections** more frequently than prose writers ; as,

"O let me gaze !—Of gazing there's no end.
O let me think !—Thought too is wilder'd here."—*Young*.

XXXVI.—They employ **antiquated words** and modes of expression ; as,

1. "Withouten that would come *an* heavier bale."—*Thomson*.
2. "He was *to weet*, a little roguish page,
Save sleep and play, who minded nought at all."—*Id*.
3. "Not one *eftsoons* in view was to be found."—*Id*.
4. "To number up the thousands dwelling here,
An useless were, and *eke* an endless task."—*Id*.
5. "Of clerks good plenty here you *mote espy*."—*Id*.
6. "But these I *passen* by, with nameless numbers *moe*."—*Id*.

FORMATION OF DERIVATIVE WORDS.

DERIVATIVE words are formed by means of prefixes and suffixes, which, in the languages from which they came, were words or parts of words, and hence they express meaning. In general, prefixes and suffixes add their own meanings to those of the stems to which they are attached. Very many derivatives have in the course of time assumed figurative, in addition to their literal, meanings; many have exchanged a literal for a figurative meaning; others have enlarged their literal signification, while still others have become restricted to narrower fields.

To form a clear idea of the present meaning of a word, it is necessary in some cases to trace its history to find the connection between the current and the etymological meaning. This is very useful and pleasurable work.

[TO THE TEACHER.]

In the following lists of prefixes and suffixes let the pupils give the definitions of the words used as examples, taking care that they clearly grasp the meanings both of prefix and suffix.

Other words should be brought in for analysis. Encourage pupils to find as many words as possible having the same prefix; also, as many as possible having the same suffix. In this way the *habit* of observing words will be formed. Besides giving the definition, the words should be put into sentences. The full force of words cannot be acquired by definition alone.

LATIN PREFIXES.

A PREFIX is one or more letters or syllables at the beginning of a word to modify the meaning.

AB [a, abs]=separation : *from, away ; abstain, abduct, abate.*

AD [a, ac, af, ag, al, am, an, ap, ar, as, at]=nearness : *to, towards ; adjacent, attract.*

AMB [am]=motion round (on all sides) : *around ; ambition, amputate.*

ANTE [anti]=in front : *before ; antepenult, anticipate.*

BENE=*well ; benevolent.*

BI [bis]=double, twice ; *bicycle.*

CIRCUM [circu]=*around ; circumnavigate, circumstance.*

CON [co, col, com, cor]=union, intensity : *with, together ; confront, complete.*

CONTRO [contra, counter]=opposition : *against ; controvert, contraband, counterfeit.*

DE=separation : *down, from, off, or is intensive ; decline, deflect, defend, declaim.*

DIS [de, di, dif]=separation : *apart, opposite of, away ; dismiss, demise, divert, differ.*

DU [duo]=two : *duet, duodecimal.*

EX [e, ef]=separation : *out, out of, from ; exhaust, exhume, elude, efface.*

EXTRA=outside of : *beyond ; extraordinary.*

IN (in verbs) [il, im, ir]=generally the opposite of ex : *in, into, upon, against ; induce, impose, irrigate, impugn.*

IN (in adjectives and nouns)=negation : *not ; irreligious, irreligion.*

INTER [intel]=*between ; interfere, intellect.*

MALE=*bad, evil ; malediction.*

NON=*not ; non-committal, non-descript, nonsense.*

OB [o, oc, of, op, os]=opposition : *against, near ; obstacle, observe, omit, occur, offer, oppress, ostensible.*

PEN=*almost ; peninsula.*

PER [pel]=*through* (of time or space), or is intensive : *pervade, permanent, pellucid.*

POST=*after* (in time) ; *postprandial.*

PRE=*before* (in time or place) ; *precedent, preside.*

What is the difference in meaning between precedent and antecedent ?

PRETER=*beyond ; preternatural.*

PRO [por, pur]=*forth, forward, for ; produce, propel, pronoun.*

RE [red]=*back, again ; reduce, reimpose, redeem.*

RETRO=*backward ; retroversion.*

SEMI=*half ; semicircle.*

SUB [suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sus]=under, and in direct relation with what is above it; often implies inferiority: *under, below, after, again; subdue, succeed, suffer, suggest, summon, support, suspend, subaltern, subdivide.*

SUPER [sur]=excess, superiority: *superfluous, superfine, surfeit, supernatural.*

TRANS [tra, tran]=*beyond, across; transpire, tradition, transgress.*

ULTRA=beyond, or extreme: *ultramontane.*

GREEK PREFIXES.

AMPHI = *around, about, on both sides; amphitheatre, amphibious.*

A [an]=*not, without; abyss, anarchy.*

ANA=often denotes opposition to what is natural: *back, again, up; analysis, anachronism, anatomy.*

ANTI [ant]=*opposition: against; antithesis, antarctic.*

APO [ap]=*separation: in many words it corresponds to the Latin ab: from, away; apostrophe, ap-helion.*

CATA = *down; catarrh, cataract, catapult.*

DIA=separation: *through, apart, across, between; diameter, diaeresis, diagram, diacritical.*

EPI [ep]=*upon, for; epigram, ephemeral.*

EU [ev]=*well, good; eulogy, evangelist.*

HEMI=half; *hemisphere.*

HYPER=excess: *above, over, beyond; hypertrophy, hyperbole.*

META [met]=*over, beyond; metaphysics, metamorphose.*

MONO=alone: *monogram, monolith, monopolist.*

PARA=beside, *parasite, paraphrase.*

PERI=around, *near; periphery, period, perihelion.*

POLY=many, *polygon, polyglot.*

SYN [syl, sym, sys]=*with, together; syncope, syllogism, sympathy, system.*

ANGLO-SAXON PREFIXES.

A=at, in, on: *ahead, abed, aboard.*

ALL [al]=denotes completeness: *wholly; allwise, almighty.*

BE=by, over, upon, for, or is intensive: *beside, bestride, belie.*

FOR [fore]=*away from: forbid, forego.*

FORE=before; *forearm.*

GAIN=against: *gainsay.*

MIS=denotes error; *wrong, wrongly: misrepresent, misrule.*

OFF=from: *offshoot.*

OUT=beyond: *outrun.*

OVER=denotes superiority or ex-

cess: *above, beyond; oversight, oversleep.*

To occurs in *to-day, to-night*, where it means *this*, and in *to-morrow*, where it means *on*.

UN in nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and participles denotes negation=

not; unaided, untruth: in verbs it signifies to free from; unchain.

UNDER denotes inferiority: *under, below; undergrowth, underwear.*

WITH=against, *back: withstand, withhold.*

SUFFIXES.

A SUFFIX is one or more letters or syllables at the end of a word to modify the meaning.

Suffixes of Latin origin are marked (L.); those of Greek origin (G.); those of French (F.); and those of Anglo-Saxon (A.-S.); n.=noun; a.=adjective; ad.=adverb; v.=verb.

ABLE [ible, ble] (L.) a. able. Port-
able=able to be carried. Profit-
able=able to produce profit.

AC (G.) a. relating to. *Demoniac*=
relating to demons.

ACY (L.) n. state. *Celibacy*=state
of being single.

n. quality. *Accuracy*=quality
of being accurate.

AGE (F.) n. state. *Bondage*=state
of being in bonds.

n. act of, or pay for. *Storage*=
act of, or pay for, storing.

n. collection of. *Foliage*=
leaves of trees collectively.

AL (L.) n. act of. *Removal*=act of
removing.

a. relating to. *Regal*=relat-
ing to the king.

AN (L.) n. one who. *Artisan*=one
who works at an art.

a. belonging to. *American*=
relating to America.

ANCE [ancy] (L.) n. state. *Elegance*
=state of being elegant.

n. *Constancy*=state of being
constant.

ANE (L.) a. relating to. *Mundane*
=relating to this world.

ANT (L.) n. one who. *Attendant*=
one who attends.

a. being. *Vigilant*=being
watchful.

a. ing. *Observant*=observing.

AR (L.) a. relating to. *Solar*=rel-
ating to the sun.

n. one who. *Scholar*=one
who belongs to a school.

ARD (A.-S.) n. one who is.
Dullard=one who is dull,
stupid.

ARY (L.) n. one who. *Secretary*=
one who manages the business of
a society.

a. relating to. *Primary*=rel-
ating to the first.

- n. place where. *Library* = place where books are kept.
- ATE (L.) a. having the quality of. *Roseate* = having the quality of the rose.
- n. one who is. *Primate* = one who is first.
- v. perform the act of. *Terminate* = to perform the act of ending.
- CULE [cle] (L.) a. little, small (diminutive ending). *Reticule* = a small bag. *Vesicle* = a small blister.
- DOM (A.-S.) n. state. *Wisdom* = state of being wise.
- ED (A.-S.) a. like. *Bigoted* = like a bigot.
- EE (F.) n. one to whom. *Referee* = one to whom a matter is referred.
- n. one who is. *Absentee* = one who is absent.
- n. one who. *Refugee* = one who flies for refuge.
- EER (F.) n. one who. *Volunteer* = one who offers his services voluntarily.
- EN (A.-S.) v. to make. *Widen* = to make wide.
- a. made of. *Wooden* = made of wood.
- n. little, small (dim. ending). *Kitten* = a small cat.
- ENCE [ency] (L.) n. state. *Despondency* = state of being despondent.
- n. quality. *Patience* = quality of being patient.
- ENT (L.) n. one who. *Student* = one who studies.
- a. being. *Equivalent* = being equal.
- ER (A.-S.) n. one who. *Teacher* = one who teaches.
- a. more. *Faster* = more fast.
- ERLY [ern] (A.-S.) a. towards. *Southern* or *southerly* = towards the South.
- a. relating to. *Southern* or *southerly* = relating to the South.
- ERY (A.-S.) n. place where. *Brewery* = a place for brewing.
- ESCENCE (L.) n. state of becoming. *Putrescence* = state of becoming putrid.
- ESCENT (L.) a. becoming. *Putrescent* = becoming putrid.
- EST (A.-S.) a. most. *Handsomest* = most handsome.
- ET (A.-S.) n. little, small. *Eaglet* = a small eagle.
- ETTE (F.) n. little, small. *Statuette* = a small statue.
- FUL (A.-S.) a. full. *Fearful* = full of fear.
- FY (L.) v. to make. *Gratify* = to make grateful.
- HEAD: Same as *Hood*.
- HOOD (A.-S.) n. state. *Boyhood* = state of a boy.
- n. quality. *Hardihood* = quality of being hardy.
- IAN (G. and L.) n. one who is skilled in. *Musician* = one skilled in music.
- n. member of. *Patrician* = member of the nobility in ancient Rome.
- IC or ICAL (G. and L.) a. relating to. *Aristocratic* = relating to aristocracy. *Civic* = relating to civil affairs.
- ICE (L.) n. Nouns derived from adjectives express the names of the quality denoted by the

- adjectives; as, *malice*, *justice*; those from verbs denote that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb; as, *notice*.
- ICS (G.) n. names of sciences. *Harmonics*=the science of musical sounds.
- ID (L.) a. having the quality of. *Arid*=having the quality of dryness.
- IER (F.) n. one who. *Brigadier*=one who commands a brigade.
- ILE (L.) a. able to be. *Ductile*=able to be drawn out.
a. relating to. *Juvenile*=relating to youth.
- INE (L.) a. relating to. *Feline*=relating to a cat.
- ION (L.) n. state of. *Attention*=state of being attentive.
n. act of. *Compulsion*=act of compelling.
- ISE [ize] (G.) v. to make or do. *Magnetize*=to make magnetic. *Criticise*=to do the work of a critic.
- ISH (A.-S. and F.) a. likeness in a small degree. *Yellowish*=somewhat yellow. *Hoggish*=more or less like a hog.
v. to make. *Accomplish*=to make complete.
- ISM (G. and L.) n. state of. *Fanaticism*=state of a fanatic.
n. doctrine. *Pantheism*=the doctrine that nature is God.
n. idiom. *Gallicism*=a French idiom.
- IST [st] (G.) n. one who. *Antagonist*=one who opposes.
- ITE (L.) a. being. *Infinite*=being without limit.
- ITY (L.) n. state of. *Security*=state of being secure. *Liberty*=state of being free.
- IVE (L.) a. able to do. *Corrective*=able to correct.
a. inclined to. *Submissive*=inclined to yield submission.
n. one who is. *Captive*=one who is taken.
n. that which is. *Missive*=that which is sent.
- KIN (A.-S.) n. little, small. *Lambkin*=a little lamb.
- LESS (A.-S.) a. without. *Toothless*=without a tooth.
- LET (A.-S.) n. small. *Ringlet*=a small ring.
- LIKE (A.-S.) a. resembling. *Life-like*=resembling life.
- LING (A.-S.) a. small. *Gosling*=a small goose.
- LY (A.-S.) ad. manner. *Candidly*=in a candid manner.
a. having the quality of. *Come-ly*=having the quality of comeliness.
- MENT (L.) n. that which does. *Complement*=that which completes.
n. that which is. *Commandment*=that which is commanded.
n. act. *Presentment*=act of presenting.
n. state. *Excitement*=state of being excited.
- MONY (L.) n. state. *Matrimony*=state of those in wedlock.
n. that which. *Alimony*=that which nourishes, an allowance.
- NESS (A.-S.) n. state. *Fearfulness*=state of being fearful.
- OCK (A.-S.) n. smallness. *Hillock*=a small hill.

(Only a very few nouns with this ending).

OR (L.) n. one who. *Instructor*=one who instructs.

n. that which. *Motor*=that which produces motion.

ORY (L.) n. place where. *Conservatory*=a place for preserving plants.

a. relating to. *Explanatory*=relating to an explanation.

OSE (L.) a. full, fond of. *Comatose*=full of coma, or sleep. *Jocose*=fond of jokes.

OUS (L.) a. fond of. *Facetious*=fond of facetiæ.

RY (F.) n. }
act of. }
n. place } *Entry* { =act of, or
where. } place for,
entering.

SHIP (A.-S.) n. state. *Hardship*=state of being in trying circumstances.

SOME (A.-S.) a. causing. *Tiresome*=causing tiresomeness.

a. being. *Lonesome*=being lonely.

STER (A.-S.) n. one who. *Teamster*=one who drives a team.

TH (A.-S.) n. that which. *Truth*=that which is true.

a. part of a unit. A fifth (part)
=one of five equal parts of a unit.

n. quality. *Width*=quality of being wide.

TUDE (L.) n. quality. *Fortitude*=the quality of courage.

n. state. *Plenitude*=state of being full.

ULE (L.) n. smallness. *Schedule*=a small leaf of paper.

URE (F. and L.) n. state. *Temperature*=state of the air as to heat or cold.

n. act. *Departure*=act of going away.

n. that which is. *Creature*=that which is created.

WARD (A.-S.) ad. towards. *Homeward*=towards home.

Y (G.) n. kind of government. *Oligarchy*=a government by a few.

n. science. *Chronology*=the science of computing dates.

n. art. *Pyrotechny*=the art of making fire works.

n. history. *Biography*=a history of one's life. *Treatise* or *description*. *Geography*=a treatise about the earth.

Y (F., L., and A.-S.) a. having. *Faulty*=having faults. *Gloomy*=having gloom.

n. place where, or wares. *Grocery*=place where the wares of a grocer are kept, also the wares themselves.

n. state. *Misery*=state of a miser.

Y [ie] n. smallness (dim.). *Johnny*=little John. *Birdie*=little bird.

(The use of such diminutives, especially of proper names, is silly and otherwise objectionable.)

With the following stems and the prefixes [in brackets] and suffixes on pp. 325-330 form as many words as you can; define each, telling the significance of prefix, stem, and suffix; also inquire whether the common meaning differs from the etymological one.

STEMS.

The following list comprises the stems required by the Regents of the University of the State of New York in Elementary English. The work of the pupils should be (1) to learn the various meanings of the stem, and (2) to give definitions of the words below which contain the stem. In giving definitions care should be taken that the primary meaning of the stem is seen clearly. Observe the models.

AG (ig) = act, urge, force, drive
[ambi, con, counter, ex, in, trans, re].

Model: *Agile* = *able to act; hence active.*

Model: *Exigent* = *forcing out; hence urgent.*

Model: *Ambiguous* = *driving around; hence equivocal, doubtful.* *Agent, agitate, active, exact, actor, counteract, coagulate, prodigal, transact(ion), enact, actuate, action, cogent, actress, actuary, actual, actuality, react(ion), reenact, reagent.*

What is the difference in meaning between agile and active?

ALT = high [ex].

Model: *Altar, a high table for sacrifice. Altitude, exalt(ation).*

ANIM = mind, spirit, passion [in, magn, equ, re, un for unus].

Model: *Animosity* = *quality of being full of passion.* *Animate, reanimate, unanimity, unanimous, magnanimous, equanimity, pusillanimous, animation.*

ANN (enn) = year [bi, centum, mille, per, super].

Model: *Annual* = *relating to a*

year, yearly. *Annals, annuity, biennial, centennial, perennial, superannuated, millennium, anniversary, quadrennial.*

APT (aptat, ept) = fit, make suitable [ad, in].

Model: *Adapt* = *to fit to.* *Adaptation, adept, inapt[(i)tude], aptitude, adaptability.*

BAS (bass) = low [a, de].

Model: *Abasement* = *state of being brought low.* (De) *base(ment), bass, basso, bassoon, bass-relief.*

BREV (brevi, brief) = short [ab].

Model: *Abbreviate* = *to shorten.* *Abbreviation, brevity, breviary, brevet.*

CAD (cas, cid) = fall [ad, de, ob].

Model: *Accident* = *that which falls to one, as by chance.* (De) *cadence, case, deciduous, casual, decay, occasion, occident, cascade.*

CAP (capt, ceipt, ceit, ceive, cept, cip) = take, seize, hold [ad, ante, con, de, ex, in, per, re, sub].

Model: *Captive* = *one who is taken.* (In) *capable, capacious, (in) capacity, recipe, anticipate, receipt, accept(able)(ation); (con)(de)(ex)(in)(per)(re) ception;*

(in) (re) *ci*pient ; (con) (de) *ceit*,
deceitful ; (con) (re) *ceiv*able ;
(de) (re) *ceiv*er ; suscepible ; (con)
(de) (re) *ceiv*e ; captor, capture.

CARN (charn)=flesh [in].

Model : *Carnal*=*pertaining to the flesh*. *Carnival*, *carnage*,
(in) *carnation*, *incarnate*, *carne*lian,
carnivorous, *charnel*, *car*rior.

CED (ceed, cess)=go, yield [ab, ad,
ante, con, ex, inter, pro, retro,
se, super].

Model : *Intercede*=*to go between*.
(se) (pre) (ac) (con) (retro) (super)
cede ; (se) (ac) (pro) (retro) (suc)
cess(ion) ; (abs) (ex) *cess* ; (ante)
(pre) *cedent* ; (ex) (pro) *ceed*.

CENT=hundred.

Model : *Centenary*=*relating to one hundred*.

CENT=percent (age), *century*, *centennial*, *centurion*, *centi* (pede) (grade).

CING (cinct)=enclose [sub, super].

Model : *Cincture*=*that which encloses*.

Model : *Precinct*=*a district enclosed in front, that is on the border, as by a fence*. *Succinct*, *surcingle*, *succinct* (ly) (ness).

CLIN (clen, clinat, cliv)=lean, bend, slope [ad, de, in, pro, re].

Model : *Proclivity*=*quality of leaning forward*. (De) (in) (re) *cline* ; (ac) (de) (pro) *clivity* ; (de) (in) (re) *clination* ; declension.

COR (cord, cour)=heart [ad, con, dis, en, re].

Model : *Cordial*=*relating to the heart*.

Model : A *cordial*=*a stimulant for the heart*.

Model : A *cordial greeting*=*a hearty greeting*. (Ac) (con) (dis) (re) *cord* ; (dis) (en) *courage* (ment) ; *core*, *cordiality*.

CUR (curat)=care [ad, pro, se, sine].

Model : *Security*=*state of being without care*. (Pro) (se) (sine) *cure* ; *security*, (ac) *curate*, *accuracy*, *procurement*, *curious*(ly), *curiosity* ; (as) (in) *sure* ; (as) (in) *sur*ance.

CURR (cour(s), curs)=run [dis, ex, in, inter, ob, pre, re, sub].

Model : *Precursor*=*that which runs ahead*. (In) (oc) (re) *cur* ; (dis) (re) (inter) *course* ; (in) (ex) *cursion* ; *succor*, *discursive*, *cur*sory, (con) *current* ; *courier*, *course*, *currency*.

DICT=speak [bene, contra, e, inter, male, pre, vale].

Model : *Predict*=*to speak beforehand*. (Contra) (inter) (pre) *dict*(ion) ; (bene) (male) *diction* ; *edict*, *valedictory*, *dictionary*, *dic*tate, *verdict*, *addicted*, *diction*, *dictator*.

DIGN=worthy [con, dis, in].

Model : *Dignify*=*to make worthy*. *Deign*, *indignant*, *condign*, *disdain*, (in) *dignity*, *dignitary*.

DUC (duct)=lead, bring [ab, ad, con, de, in, intro, pro, re, se, trans].

Model : *Product*=*that which is brought forth*. (Tra) (se) (e) (ad) (con) (de) (in) (pro) (re) *duce* ; (se) (intro) (ab) (ad) (con) (de) (in) (pro) (re) *duction* ; *duke*, *duct*, *conduit* ; (ab) (ad) (con) (in) (de) (pro) *duct* ; *ductile*, *ductility* ; (de) (re) *ducible* ; (se) (intro) (ad) (con) (de) (in) (pro) *ductive* ; *introduce*,

introductory, introducer, ducal, ducat, duchy, duchess, educate.

EQU=equal [ad, un].

Model: Adequate=*having the quality of being equal*; hence, sufficient. Equal, equivalent, equanimity, equivocal, equinox, equality, equation, equilibrium, equivocate.

FA (f, fant, fat)=speak [ad, in, multi, ne, pre].

Model: Ineffable=*not able to be spoken out*. Fable, fabulous, fate(ful), affable, infant, infancy, infantile, infantine; (multi) (ne) farious; fatal (ism) (ist), preface, prefatory, infantry.

FAC (fact, fect, fic)=make, do [ad, con, counter, de, dis, ex, in, per, pro, re, super].

Model: Factory=*a place where things are made*. Fact, faction, facile; (af) (in) (de) (ef) (per) fect; (af) (in) (con) (de) (per) (re) fectiō; effectual, artifice, artificial, factotum; (ef) (pro) (de) ficient; difficult(y), efficacious, suffice, fashion, feasible, counterfeit, profit, feature, surfeit.

FER (lat)=bear, carry [circum, con, de, dis, ex, in, ob, pre, pro, re, sub, trans].

Model: Fertile=*able to bear*. (Suf) (de) (in) (con) (of) (dif) (pre) (prof) (re) (trans) fer; (suf) (circum) (de) (in) (con) (pre) (re) (dif) (trans) ference; (di) (col) (pro) (ob) (re) (trans) (e) late.

FID (fi, fy)=faith, trust [ad, con, de, dis, in, per].

Model: Infidel=*one who does not believe*. Confide; (in) fidelity, diffident, defy, defiant, defiance,

diffidence, confidence, perfidious, affiance.

FIN (finit)=end, limit [ad, con, de, in, re, un].

Model: Final=*pertaining to the end*. Finish, fine, finance, financial; (con) (de) (re) fine; (de) (in) finitive, definition, definable.

FRANG (fract, frag)=break [in re].

Model: Fraction=*that which is broken off*. Fragile, fragment, fracture, infraction, refract(ory), refrangible.

FUND (fus, fut)=melt, pour [ad, con, dis, ex, in, pro, re, sub, trans].

Model: Fusible=*able to be melted*. (Af) (con) (dif) (in) (pro) (trans) (ef) (re) (suf) fuse; (af) (con) (dif) (in) (pro) (trans) (ef) (suf) fusion; confound, refund, refute, futile.

GEN (gend, gener)=kind, race, class [de, in, pro, re].

Model: Degenerate=*to let the race down*. Genuine, generous, genial, engender, regenerate, progeny, gender.

GRAD (gress)=step, walk, go [ad, con, de, dis, ex, in, pro, retro, trans].

Model: Retrograde=*to go backward*. Grade, gradual, graduate; (de) (retro) grade; (ag) (con) (di) (e) (in) (pro) (trans) gress; (ag) (di) (e) (in) (pro) (trans) (retro) gression; ingredient, aggress (or) (ive).

GRAPH (gram)=write [ana, dia, epi].

Model: Epigraph=*a writing upon a building denoting its use*. Graft, graphite, graphic(ally);

(epi) (ana) (dia) (pro) (dia) (tele)
gram, grammar.

GRAT (grati, gre)=pleasure, favor.

Model: *Gratify*=to cause pleasure. *Gratuitous, gratis, grace, congratulate, ingratiate*; (un) *grateful, gracious, gratitude, gratification, (dis) agreeable (ment).*

HOSPIT (host)=guest, host [in].

Model: *Hospitality*=quality of being kind to guests [*strangers*]. *Host(ess), hospital, (in)hospitable, hotel, hostler.*

JAC (ject)=lie, throw, hurl [ab, ad, con, de, ex, in, inter, ob, pro, re, sub].

Model: *Adjective* = a word thrown with another to modify it. (Ab) (de) (e) (in) (inter) (ob) (pro) (re) (sub) *ject(ion)*; adjacent, *jetsam, jut, conjecture.*

JUNCT (jug)=join [ad, con, dis, in, sub].

Model: *Subjugate* = to join by bringing under. To subjugate a people is to unite with them in such a way that they are under; *conjugal, conjugate, conjugation*; (con) (in) *junction, subjunctive.*

JUR=law, right, swear [ab, ad, con, in, per].

Model: *Jurist* = one who is versed in law.

Model: *Abjure*=to swear away from; to renounce upon oath. (Ad) (con) (in) (per) *jure*; *jury*; (in) (per) *jury*; *jurisdiction.*

LEG=send [ad, con, de, re].

Model: *Legate*=one who is sent. *Legacy. allege*; (de) (re) *legate (ion), colleague.*

LEG (lect)=gather, choose [con, dis, ex, pre, se].

Model: *Predilection* = pre + di + *lection*=a choosing apart beforehand, hence a previous liking. *Eclectic, legion, diligent, eligible, elegant*; (col) (se) *lect(ion).*

LIBER=free [de, in].

Model: *Liberate*=to make free. *Liber(al)(ity, illiberality, liberally, deliver, livery.*

LIN=flax, line [de].

Model: *Linen*=made of flax, lining, line, linseed, delineate, lineage, lineal, linear, lineament, crinoline.

LITER=letter [ad, in, ob].

Model: *Illiterate*=not skilled in letters, hence unlearned. *Literate, literature, literal(ly), literary, alliteration, obliterate.*

LOC=place [col, dis].

Model: *dislocate*=to put out of place. *Locate, local(ity) (ize), locomotion*; (col) (*dis*) *location*; locomotive.

LOG=speech, word, science, description [ana, apo, cata, deca, ec, epi, eu].

Model: *Eulogy*=a speech or writing in commendation of a person. (Ana) (apo) (cata) (pro) *logue*; (il) *logic(al), syllogism.*

LOQU (locut)=speak, talk [ad, con, ex, circum. ob].

Model: *Loquacious* = inclined to talk. (Al) (circum) (e) *locution, eloquent*; (col) (ob) (soli) *loquy*; *ventriloquist, colloquial.*

LUD (lus)=play, laugh at [ad, col, de, e, in, inter, pre].

Model: *Ludicrous* = producing laughter. (Il) (~~de~~) (al) (col) (e)

(pre) (inter) *lude*; (al) (col) (de) (e) (il) *lusion*; (al) (de) (e) (il) *lusive*.

MAGN (maj, maxim)=great.

Model: *Magnitude* = state of being great. *Magnate*, *magnify*, *major*, *mayor*, *magnanimous*, *magnificent*, *maxim*, *maximum*.

MAN=hand [a, ex].

Model: *Manage* = to take in hand. *Manual*, *manacle*, *manuscript*, *amanuensis*, *manifest*, *manufacture*, *maintain*, *emancipate*, *maneuver*, *manner*, *manumit*, *maniple*, *manipulate*.

MAR = the sea [sub, trans, ultra].

Model: *Mariner* = one who gains his living by the sea. *Marine*, *maritime*; (sub) (trans) (ultra) *marine*.

MATER (matr)=mother.

Model: *Matricide*=the murder of a mother or the murderer of a mother. *Maternal*, *matrimony*, *matron*(al) (ly).

MEDI=middle [in, inter].

Model: *Mediation*=act of mediating. *Median*, *medium* (im)-mediate, *mediation*, *mediatorial*, *medieval*, *mediocre*, *mediocrity*, *meridian*, *mean*.

MENT=mind [de].

Model: *Mental*=pertaining to the mind. *Mentality*, *mentally*, *mention*, *demented*.

MERC=trade, reward [com].

Model: *Mercenary*=serving for a reward. *Commerce*, *commercial*, *mercantile*, *mercy*, *merchant*, *merchandise*.

From this point the pupil should continue the work without the model.

MERG (mers)=dip, plunge, sink, mingle [e, in, sub], (e final, ence, ion).

METER (metr) = measure [dia, peri (y), syn].

MIGR = wander [e, in, trans.], ant, ate, ion (e final, ency, ory).

What are *migratory* birds?

Can a person be both an *emigrant* and an *immigrant* at the same time?

MIR (mar, mira, mirat) = wonder [ad], (age, bility, ble, cle, ion, ly, ons, (r)or, vel).

MITT (miss, mit)=send [ad, con, dis, e, inter, ob, per, pro, re,

trans], (age, ance, ary, ee, ent, ible, ile, ion, ive).

Difference between *admittance* and *admission*?

MON (monit, monu) = advise [ad, pre, sub], (al, ary, ion, ish, ive, ment, or, ster).

MORT = death [in], (al, (at)ion, gage, ify, ity, ize, ly, (u)ary).

MOR (mot, mo)=move [con, e, in, pro, re], (able, ably, e final, er, ion, ive, ment, or).

What does *promoted* mean to you?

MULTI=many (er, form, ply, tude, plic + at(e) + ion, pli + er).

MUN (munit)=fortify (ion, ment).

NAT=born [in], (al, e, ive, ure).

Of what city and town are you a *native*?

NAV (nau, naus, navig)=ship [circum], (able, al, ate, ic, ion, or, ous).

Why does the *motion* of a ship produce *nausea*?

NOT (gnis, gnit, gno, gnomin, gnor, no, nomin, noun), [con, de, in, re]=known, name (able, ance, ant, ary, ate, ble, bility, bly, e final, ice, ion, ize, ous).

NUMER (numerat, num)=number [e, in, super], (able, al, ary, ate, er, ic, ion, less, ous).

NUNCI (nunciat, nounce), [ad, de, e, pro, re]=tell (e final, ion, ment).

OCUL=eye [bin, in], (ar, ate, ion, ist, ly).

PAR (pair, parat)=get ready [com, in, pre, re, se], (able, ade, ate, e final, ion, ity, ly).

Has your school the *apparatus* needed for teaching physics, chemistry, geography?

PARL=speak (ance, ey, [ia]ment, or, ary).

PART (partit)=divide, share [ad, con, de, in, re], (ee, ion, (n)er, y).

PAST=feed [re], (al, or, ure).

What is a *pastel*?

PAT (pass)=suffer [con, in], (ate, ible, (i)ent, (i)ence, ive, ion, ly).

Does a *passionate* person suffer?

When is a person *compassionate*?

PATER (patr, patri)=father [con, ex], age, arch, ate, ion, ism, (i)st, ly, mony, (n)al, (n)ity, on.

PED=foot [ex, im], (al, bi, (dl)er, (e)stal, (i)cle, ion, (i)ment, ite).

What has an *impediment* of speech to do with the foot? Has the word required a broader or a narrower meaning?

PELL (pel, puls)=drive, urge [con, dis, ex, im, pro, re] (ate, e, ion, ive, ory).

How many times a minute does your *pulse* beat? What is an *impulsive* person? A *repulsive* one?

PEND (pens)=hang, weigh, pay [ad, con, de, dis, ex, in] (able, ant, ary, ate, ence, ent, er, ile, ion, (i)ous, ity, ium, ive, ly, ness).

To ascertain the value of a large pile of silver coins, would our Government count or weigh them? Why does our Government pay *pensions*? What is a *perpendicular*? How does it affect the running time of a clock to raise the *pendulum*?

PET (petit, peat)=ask [ad, com, in, re], (e final, ed, ence, ency, ent, ion, ity, ive, ly, or, (u)ous, us).

PHIL (philo)=fond, loving.

PLE (plet, plen, plent, ply)=full [con, de, re, sub], (ance, ant, ary, e, ful, ion, ish, (i)tude, ly, ment).

What is a *plenipotentiary*?

PLIC (plicat, plicit, pli, ply, plex, ple, play, ploy)=fold [ad, con, du, ex, in], (able, ant, ate, e, fy, ion, ity, ly, ment, mis, multi, sub).

What is it to *replevy* goods? Do you see the idea of *folding* in the words *supplicate* and *suppliment*?

PON (pos, posit)=place [con, de, dis, ex, in, juxta, ob, post, pro, sub, trans], (ary, e, ent, er, ion, ite, ive, ory).

Do you like to write *compositions*? He made an *apposite* reply. What does that mean?

PORT (portat)=carry (pur), [con, de, dis, ex, in, pro, re, sub, trans], (able, age, ance, ant, er, folio, ion, ly, manteau, ment, ness).

Distinguish between *transport*, *transfer*, and *translate*; all having the idea of *carrying*.

PORT=gate [in, ob], (al, er, ico, une).

The *opportune* moment is when the *gate* is open and the thing to be done lies near (ob); hence, of easy access, convenient.

PRIM (prin, pri)=first (e, er, acy, ary, ate, cip(al) (le), (it)ive, ity, ly, or, ory).

Difference between *principal* and *principle*.

SACR (secr)=holy [con, de, ex], (able, (a)ment, ate, (il)ege, (i)fice, dotal).

SCI=know [con, omni, pri], (e, ence, ent, entific, ly, ness, ons).

SCRIB (script)=write [ad, circum, con, de, in, pre, pro, re, trans], (e, ble, ion, ure).

Give one good reason why a pupil should not *scribble*.

SENT (sens)=feel, perceive, think [ad, con, dis, in, non, re], (al, ate, e, ence, ent, ibility, ion, ment, less, ible, ibly, ness, ical, ion, ive).

SEQU (secut, suit)=follow [con, ex, ob, per, pro, sub], (able,

ance, ant, e, el, ence, ent, ies, ion, ive, or, ous).

SOL=alone [de], (e, o, (i)tude, ate, ion, ary, ly, ion, (i)loquize, (i)loquy).

SPEC (spect, spic, spectat)=look [ad, circum, de, per, pro, re, retro, sub], ((i)men, (i)ous, (u)ous, able, acity, (a)cles, ive, or, (r)um, er).

SPIR (spirit)=breathe [ad, con, ex, in, per, sub, trans], (acy, ant, ate, e, ion, it, ity, or, ory, (u)al, (u)ous).

What common idea is there between *spiritual* and *spirituous*?

STRU (struct, stray)=build [con, de, in, mis, ob, super]. (al, er, ion, ity, ive, ment, ure).

SUM (sumpt)=take [ad, con, in, pre, re], (able, e, er, ion, ive, (u)ary, (u)ous).

TANG (ting, tact, tag, tig, tegr, tain)=touch [ab(s), ad, con, de, in, per, re, sub], (able, al, ent, ion, ment, (u)ous, (u)ity, ile).

UN=one [tri], (anim(ous)(ity), (i)form, ion, ique, it, ite, (i)vers(al) (ity).

UT (us, util)=use [in], (ensil, ilize, ful, ility, ness).

VOC (vocat)=call [ad, con, ex, in, pro, equi, re], (able, acy, al, e, ion, ist, ive, ize).

VID (vis)=see [ad, ex, in, pro, re, super], (able, age, ary, e, ence, ent, ible, ion, (i)ous, it, ness, or, (u)al).

VI(V) (vit, victu)=live [re, super, (sur)], (acity, id, (i)section, al, ity, or, and, (i)al).

STEMS REQUIRED BY THE REGENTS IN THEIR COURSE OF ADVANCED ENGLISH.

APER (apert)=open [L. aperire].	GER (gerat, gest, gestat, gesticulat, gist)=carry on, bear [L. gerere ; gestare, gesticulari].
ARCH =beginning, chief, rule, government [G. arche].	GRAN =gran [L. granum].
ART (ert)=skill, method [L. ars].	GROSS (gro, gros)=fat, large [L. grossus].
AUD (audit, ed, ey)=hear [L. audire].	HOR =hour [L. hora].
AUR =gold [L. aurum].	INTEG =whole, entire [L. integer ; in=not, and tangere, touch].
BAT =beat [L. bātere].	JUDIC =judge [judicari].
BIT =bite [A.-S. bitan].	LINGU (langu)=tongue [L. lingua].
CANT (cent, chant)=sing much or often [L. cantare].	MAJOR (mayor)=greater [L. major].
CAPIT =head [L. caput].	MAN (mans, main, mn)=stay [L. manere].
CELER =hasten [L. celerare].	MEDIC (medicat)=heal [L. medicare].
COMMOD =fit, suitable [L. commodus ; con + modus, measure].	MENS =measure [L. mensus].
COMMUN =common [L. communis ; con + munus, duty].	PAN (pant)=all, whole [G. pas].
CORON =crown [L. corona].	PAN =bread [L. panis].
CORPUS (corpor, corpu, cors, corps)=body [L. corpus].	PAR (pair, peer)=equal [L. par].
CRED (credit)=believe [L. credere].	PASS =step [L. passus].
CYCL (cyclo)=circle [G. cuclos].	PEN (pun)=punishment, pain [L. pœna].
DAT (dit, don, donat)=give [L. dare ; donare].	PETR =rock [G. petra].
DENT =tooth [L. dens].	PHON =sound [G. phonos].
DI =day [L. dies].	PHYS (physi)=nature [G. phusis].
DOMIN (dominat)=rule [L. dominare].	PICT (paint, pig)=paint [L. pingere].
DORM [dormit]=sleep [L. dormire].	PLAC (plais, pleas)=please [L. placere].
FAC (fic)=face [L. facies].	PLE (plen, plet, plent, pli, ply)=full [L. plere ; plenus].
FELIC =happy [L. felix].	PLUM =feather [L. pluma].
FESS =acknowledge [L. fateri].	PLUMB (plum)=lead [L. plumbum].
FORM =shape [L. forma].	POT (potat)=drink [L. potare].
FORT =strong [L. fortis].	POTENT =powerful [L. potens].

- PREHEND** (prehens, pris)=seize, grasp [L. prehendere].
PUNG (punct)=prick [L. pungere].
QUADR=square [L. quadra].
QUANT=how much [L. quantus].
QUER (quest, quis, quisit)=seek, ask [L. quærere].
QUIET (qui, quit)=quiet [L. quietus].
RADI (radiat, ray)=emit rays [L. radiare].
RAP (rapt, rav)=seize [L. rapere].
RAT=think, determine [L. ratio].
REG (rect, regul, regulat, rig)=rule, govern; straight [L. regere; regulare; rectus, straight].
RID (ris)=laugh [L. ridere].
RIV (rivat)=stream, flow [L. rivus].
ROG (rogat)=ask, demand, question [L. rogare].
RUPT=break [L. rumpere].
SAL=salt [L. sal].
SAL (sail, saltat, sault, sil)=leap [L. salire; saltare].
SANCT (saint)=made sacred [L. sancire].
SAT=enough, sufficient [L. satis].
SCOP (scept)=watch, look [G. scopos].
SEC (sect)=cut [L. secare].
SEN=old [L. senex].
SERV=keep, serve [L. servare; servire].
SIST (st, sta, stam, stant, stat, stit, stitit)=place [L. sistere; stare; statuere].
SON (sono)=sound [L. sonare].
SORT=lot [L. sors].
SPECI=kind [L. species].
STELL=star [L. stella].
STRING (strain, strait, strict)=bind, draw tight [L. stringere].
SU=self [L. sui].
SUAD (suas)=advise, entreat [L. suadere].
SURG (surrect)=rise [L. surgere= sub + regere].
TAIL (toll)=cut [F. tailler].
TANG (tact, tag, tig, ting)=touch [L. tangere].
TEG (tect)=cover [L. tegere].
TEMPOR=time [L. tempus].
TEND=(tens, tent) stretch [L. tendere].
TEST (testat)=witness [L. testari].
TORT (tor, tors)=twist [L. torquere].
TRACT=draw [L. trahere].
TRIT (tri)=rub [L. terere].
TRUD (trus)=thrust [L. trudere].
UND (undat, undulat)=flow, swell as a wave [L. undare, undatus].
VAD (vas)=go [L. vadere].
VAL=be strong, be of use [L. valere].
VEN (vent)=come [L. venire].
VERT (vers)=turn [L. vertere].
VI (vey, viat, vog)=way, road [L. viare].
VIC (vice)=change [L. vicis].
VOLV (volu, volut)=roll [L. volvere].
VOT=vow [L. vovere].

UNION OF AFFIX TO STEM.

When a prefix is joined to a stem no change of letters occurs if an easy pronunciation results. Sometimes, however, letters are brought together which cannot be pronounced easily in close connection. This often happens when the final consonant of a prefix and the initial consonant of the stem are made with different vocal organs ; as d before c and g, in *accede* and *aggravate* ; and also, less often, when they are made with the same organs ; as d before t in *attract*, or b before p in *oppress*. An easy utterance is secured in many words by changing the final consonant of the prefix to the initial consonant of the stem. This change is called *assimilation*. The changes affecting the final consonants of prefixes are as follows :

AB, in some words, drops b before b, and adds s before c and t.	drops n before g ; and changes n to m before b, m, p.
AD assimilates d before c, f, g, l, m, n, p, r, s, t ; in some words d is dropped before s, and in others it is changed to s before p.	INTER assimilates r before l.
CON assimilates n before l and r ; is changed to m before b, m, p ; and is dropped before a, e, i, g, h.	SUB assimilates b before c, f, g, m, p ; changes b to s before p, t, and drops b before s.
IN assimilates n before l and r ;	TRANS becomes tra before d, and tran before s.
	SYN assimilates n before l, m ; changes n to m before p, and to i before t.

Suffixes are joined to stems without change, excepting such as are explained by the Rules on pages 29 and 30, and some stems ending in a vowel when a suffix beginning with the same vowel is added, in which case one vowel is dropped ; as, *America* + *an* = *American*.

ABBREVIATIONS.

@ = At.**A.B.**, or **B.A.** = Bachelor of Arts.**Acct.**, or **acct.**, or **q/c** = Account.**A.D.** = In the year of our Lord.**Adj.**, or **adj.** = Adjective.**Adv.**, **adv.**, **Ad.**, or **ad.** = Advent.**Adv.**, or **adv.** = Advertisement.**Ala.** = Alabama.**A.M.**, or **M.A.** = Master of Arts.**A.M.** = Before noon.**Anon.** = Anonymous.**Apr.** = April.**Ark.** = Arkansas.**Ar. Ter.** = Arizona Territory.**A.-S.** = Anglo-Saxon.**Aug.** = August.**Ave.** = Avenue.**Bal.** = Balance.**Bbl.**, or **bbl.** = Barrel.**Bro.** = Brother.**Bu.**, **bu.**, **Bush.**, or **bush.** = Bushel.**B.C.** = Before Christ.**B.S.** = Bachelor of Science.**C.** = Hundred.**Can.** = Canada.**Cal.** = California.**Capt.** = Captain.**C. E.** = Civil engineer.**C. H.** = Court House.**Chap.** = Chapter.**Chas.** = Charles.**Co.** = Company, county.**C. O. D.** = Collect on delivery.**Col.** = Colonel, Colorado.**Coll.** = College.**Conn.**, or **Ct.** = Connecticut.**Cor. Sec.** = Corresponding Secretary.**Cr.** = Credit, creditor.**Ct.**, or **ct.** = Cent(s).**Cwt.**, or **cwt.** = Hundred-weight.**d.** = penny, pence.**D. C.** = District of Columbia.**D.D.** = Doctor of Divinity.**Dec.** = December.**Del.** = Delaware.**Dict.** = Dictionary.**Do.**, or **do.** = Ditto (the same).**Dr.** = Doctor, debtor.**Doz.**, or **doz.** = Dozen, dozens.**D.V.** = God willing.**E.** = East.**Ed.** = Editor, edition.**E. E.** = Errors excepted.**e. g.** = For example.**Eng.** = England.**Esq.** = Esquire.**et al.** = And others.**Etc.** = And so forth, and others.**Ex.** = Exercise, example, Ex-
odus.**F.**, or **Fahr.** = Fahrenheit.**Feb.** = February.**Fla.** = Florida.**Fr.** = French.**Fri.** = Friday.**Ft.**, or **ft.** = Foot, feet.**F.R.S.** = Fellow of the Royal So-
ciety.**Fur.**, or **fur.** = Furlong(s).**Ga.** = Georgia.**Gal.**, or **gal.** = Gallon.**Gen.** = General.**Geo.** = George.**Ger.** = German.**Gov.** = Governor.

Gr. = Greek.

H.B.M. = His or Her Britannic Majesty.

Hdkf., or **hdkf.** = Handkerchief.

Hhd., or **hhd.** = Hogshead(s).

Hon. = Honorable.

Id., or **id.** = The same (*idem*).

Id. = Idaho.

i.e. = That is (*id est*).

Ill. = Illinois.

in. = Inch(es).

incog. = Unknown.

Ind. = Indiana.

Ind. Ter. = Indian Territory.

Ia., or **Io.** = Iowa.

Inf., or **inf.** = Infinitive.

Imp., or **imp.** = Imperfect.

Inst. = Instant.

Int., or **int.** = Interest.

It. = Italian.

Jan. = January.

Jr., or **Jun.** = Junior.

Kan. = Kansas.

Ky. = Kentucky.

L. = Latin.

l.; **ll.** = Line; lines.

La. = Louisiana.

Lat., or **lat.** = Latitude.

lb. = Pound(s).

L. I. = Long Island.

Lieut. = Lieutenant.

LL.B. = Bachelor of Laws.

LL.D. = Doctor of Laws.

Lon., or **lon.** = Longitude.

M. = Noon; thousand.

M., or **Mons.** = Sir (*Monsieur*).

Maj. = Major.

Mar. = March.

Mass. = Massachusetts.

M. C. = Member of Congress.

M.D. = Doctor of Medicine.

Md. = Maryland.

Mdse. = Merchandise.

Me. = Maine.

Messrs. = Sirs; gentlemen (*Messieurs*).

Mich. = Michigan.

Minn. = Minnesota.

Miss. = Mississippi.

Mlle. = Mademoiselle.

Mme. = Madame.

Mo. = Missouri; month.

Mon. = Montana.

mos. = Months.

M.P. = Member of Parliament.

Mr. = Master; Mister.

Mrs. = Mistress.

MS.; **MSS.** = Manuscript; manuscripts.

Mt.; **mts.** = Mountain; mountains.

N. = North.

N. A. = North America.

N.B. = Take notice.

N. C. = North Carolina.

N. Dak. = North Dakota.

N. E. = New England.

Neb. = Nebraska.

Nev. = Nevada.

N. H. = New Hampshire.

N. J. = New Jersey.

N. M. = New Mexico.

No. = Number.

Nov. = November.

N. Y. = New York.

O. = Ohio.

Oct. = October.

Or. = Oregon.

oz. = Ounce(s).

p.; **pp.** = Page; pages.

Pa., or **Penn.** = Pennsylvania.

Per cent. = By the hundred.

Ph.D. = Doctor of Philosophy.

Ph.B. = Bachelor of Philosophy.

Phil. = Philadelphia.

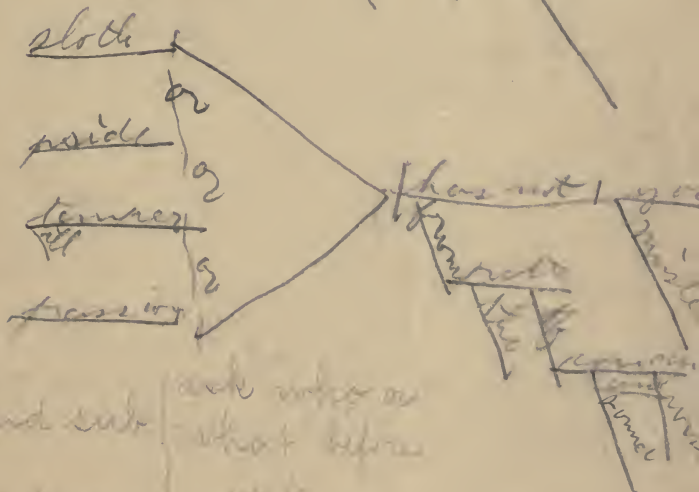
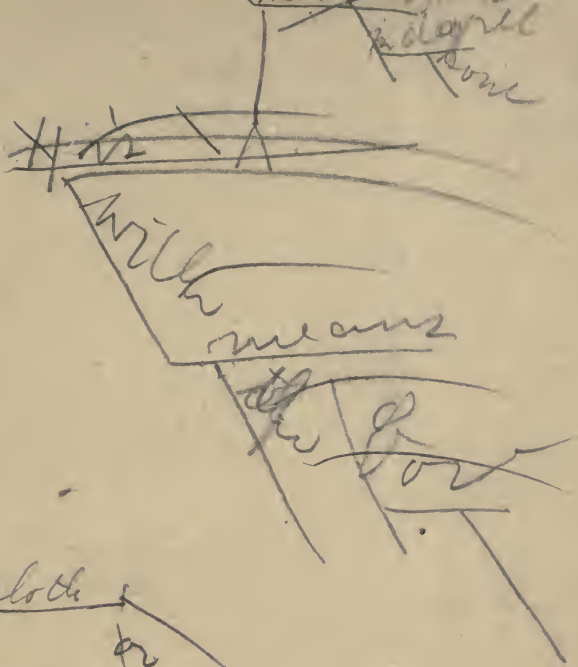
Pk., or **pk.** = Peck(s).

Pl. = Plural.

P.M..=Postmaster ; afternoon.
P. O..=Post Office.
Pres..=Present ; President.
Prof..=Professor.
Pro tem..=For the time.
Prox., or prox..=Next month.
P.S..=Postscript.
pt..=Pint(s).
pwt..=Pennyweight(s).
Q. E. D., or q. e. d. = Which was
to be proved.
Qt..=Quart(s).
q. v..—Which see.
Recd..=Received.
Rev..=Reverend ; Revelations.
R. I..=Rhode Island.
R. R..=Railroad.
Robt..=Robert.
Rt. Rev..=Right Reverend.
S. ; s..=South ; shilling(s).
S. A..=South America.
Sat..=Saturday.
S. C..=South Carolina.
S. Dak..=South Dakota.
Sec..=Secretary.
Sept..=September.
Sing..=Singular.
Sq..=Square.
Sr., or Sen..=Senior.

St..=Street, saint.
Sun..=Sunday.
Supt..=Superintendent.
T..=Ton, tons.
Tenn..=Tennessee.
Tex..=Texas.
Thos..=Thomas.
Thurs..=Thursday.
Tues..=Tuesday.
Ult..=Last month.
U. S..=United States.
U. S. A. = United States Army ;
United States of America.
U. S. N..=United States Navy.
U. Ter..=Utah Territory.
Va..=Virginia.
viz..=Namely.
Vol..=Volume.
vs..=Against.
Vt..=Vermont.
W..=West.
Wash..=Washington.
Wed..=Wednesday.
W. I..=West Indies.
Wis..=Wisconsin.
Wy. Ter..=Wyoming Territory.
W. Va..=West Virginia.
wt..=Weight.
yd..=Yard, yards.

*7. Make a syllable as a question
 as you can without pronouncing
 the next one.
 in a separate line from the
 one before it, and not with it.*



England sub
 pred
 ark water or
 what before
 water
 ark water or
 after sub

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